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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS BULLETIN

Vol. IX

MAY 6, 1912

No. 26

[Entered Feb. 14, 1908, at Urbana, Ill., as second-class matter under Act of Congress of July 16, 1894]

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BULLETIN NO. 58

A NEW ANALYSIS OF THE
CYLINDER PERFORMANCE OF
RECIPROCATING ENGINES

BY

J. PAUL CLAYTON



UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

URBANA, ILLINOIS
PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY

PRICE: SIXTY CENTS
EUROPEAN AGENT
CHAPMAN AND HALL, LTD., LONDON

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BULLETINS

OF THE



ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

VOLUME VIII

BULLETINS 58-62

MAY, 1912—DECEMBER, 1912

URBANA, ILLINOIS

1913

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BULLETIN No. 58

MAY 1912

A NEW ANALYSIS OF THE CYLINDER PERFORMANCE
OF RECIPROCATING ENGINES

BY J. PAUL CLAYTON, ASSISTANT, MECHANICAL ENGINEERING
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A NEW ANALYSIS OF THE CYLINDER PERFORMANCE OF RECIPROCATING ENGINES

INTRODUCTION

Preliminary.—The cylinder performance of a reciprocating engine using an elastic fluid for the working medium may be considered from two points of view: (1) the performance as a heat engine, or the efficiency of transformation of the available heat into indicated work; and (2) as a mechanism, or the measure of perfection attained in the distribution of the working fluid, and in preventing its leakage past the valves, piston, or piston rods.

Our knowledge of cylinder performance is obtained almost entirely from indicator diagrams. These diagrams provide a measure of the work performed in one cycle of operation, thus giving a means for determining what proportion of the heat available has been transformed into work, this proportion being expressed as a thermal, potential or other efficiency.

The results of methods used at present in the analysis of cylinder performance may be divided into two classes: (1) those which are relatively exact and satisfactory; and (2) those which are relatively inexact and unsatisfactory. Under these two headings the following results may be enumerated:

CLASS 1.

1. Indicated work.
2. Aid in valve setting.
3. Rough location of cyclic events.
4. Hirn's analysis for steam cylinders.
5. Measure of initial condensation in steam cylinders.
6. Detection of leakage, if very large, during expansion or compression of any elastic medium.
7. Measure of the diagram factor for the purposes of design.

CLASS 2.

1. Accurate approximation of clearance volume from all cylinders using elastic media.
2. Close location of cyclic events.
3. Reliable detection and approximation of moderate leakage with the engine in regular operation.
4. Measure of the actual steam consumption from steam diagrams.

5. Separation of the initial condensation and leakage in steam cylinders.
6. Division of feed between the two ends of a steam cylinder for the application of Hirn's analysis.

It has generally been thought by engineers that a satisfactory solution of these last-mentioned problems is impossible because the indicator diagram has not been supposed to contain in itself the evidence necessary for their solution.

The investigation described in this bulletin is the result of an extensive analytical and experimental study of the forms of the expansion and compression curves which occur in indicator diagrams. The analytical study was carried on by means of transferring the indicator diagram to logarithmic cross-section paper and then drawing a figure which will be called the logarithmic diagram.

It is well-known that the equation of the polytropic curve $PV^n = C$ becomes a straight line when plotted on logarithmic cross-section paper. Conversely, when the expansion or compression curve of an indicator diagram becomes a straight line in the logarithmic diagram, the curve is of the form $PV^n = C$, the value of n being the slope of the line.

By means of the logarithmic diagram, it has been found that, free from certain abnormal influences, expansion or compression of an elastic medium takes place in the cylinders of reciprocating engines substantially according to the law $PV^n = C$.

From the fact that the law $PV^n = C$ holds for expansion and compression curves from practice, there have been developed rational methods of approximating the clearance volume, of closely locating the cyclic events, and of detecting moderate leakage when the engine is in regular operation. These methods apply, however, only to those indicator diagrams which are taken from the cylinders of reciprocating engines using any elastic fluid for the working medium and having, as a part of the cycle, an expansion or compression of the medium.

It has been discovered that the value of n for the expansion curves of steam diagrams bears a definite relation in any given cylinder to the proportion of the total weight of steam mixture which was present as steam at cut-off. This proportion or quality will be called x_c in this investigation, and its value will be expressed in parts of unity. The relation of the value of n to the value of x_c for the same class of cylinder as regards jacketing has

been found to be practically independent of engine speed and of cylinder size.

The practical significance of finding this relation is that there is now available an accurate method of approximating the value of x_c and therefore the actual weight of steam and water present at cut-off from the indicator diagram alone. As a result, a new analysis of cylinder performance has been developed.

Acknowledgments.—Acknowledgment of valuable assistance is made to Dean W. F. M. Goss, Professor G. A. Goodenough, Professor O. A. Leutwiler, Mr. C. M. Garland, to Purdue University, and to various firms which furnished indicator diagrams and tests for analysis.

PART I. THE APPROXIMATION OF THE ACTUAL STEAM CONSUMPTION FROM INDICATOR DIAGRAMS

I. PRELIMINARY WORK

1. *Study of Indicator Diagrams.*—The preliminary work consisted of an examination of the nature and form of the expansion and compression curves of the indicator diagrams from a number of steam engines. This work was accomplished by means of transferring the indicator or PV -diagram to logarithmic cross-section paper, and thus drawing a figure which will be called the logarithmic diagram. It was found, after repeated experiments, (see p. 55) that free from certain abnormal influences, expansion or compression of steam takes place in cylinders substantially according to the law, $PV^n = C$. The values of n which were obtained, however, exhibited a large range of variation, the range being from 0.70 to 1.34. The engines from which the values were obtained differed in type, size, speed, steam pressure, ratio of expansion and back pressure. Obviously, comparisons could not be made of these examples because of the number and magnitude of the variables.

Indicator diagrams taken from the same cylinder, with different cut-off positions, showed that the value of n was higher as the cut-off was lengthened. There was a large variation in the value of n where the conditions of cylinder size, speed, steam pressure, and steam distribution were the same. The only variable shown by the diagrams was the length of the cut-off. It was thought that there might be some relation, in any one cylinder, between the value of n for the expansion curve and the quality of the steam mixture at cut-off, as this quality was known to be higher as the length of cut-off increased. One fact that seemed to

confirm this hypothesis was that with superheated steam (under the same general conditions, except the kind of steam used), when the quality at cut-off was high, the value of n for expansion was always much higher than with saturated steam. The only important variable between the use of saturated and superheated steam to account for the change in the value of n was the quality of the steam mixture at cut-off, or the proportion of the total weight of mixture in the cylinder which was present as steam at cut-off. This quality or proportion will be called x_c in this investigation, and its value will be expressed as decimal parts of 1.

All cases examined of engines using superheated steam at normal cut-off showed n to be higher than 1.0, and as high as 1.34; and all cases of small engines using saturated steam showed n to be lower than 1.0 and as low as 0.70. These facts led to the conclusion that the value of x_c was the most important single factor in the accompanying value of n . Tests were, therefore, planned in which the effort was made to vary the value of x_c between the widest practicable limits.

II. LABORATORY TESTS

2. *Equipment.*—A single-cylinder long-range cut-off, 12 in. x 24 in. Corliss engine, located in the Mechanical Engineering Laboratory of the University of Illinois, was selected for the tests. A Corliss engine was selected because of the fact that in this type all the steam used passed through the cylinder.

3. *Plan of Tests.*—It was planned to observe the effect upon the value of n of varying the value of x_c under different conditions of pressure and speed. The value of x_c was varied through a large range by the use of saturated and superheated steam, in conjunction with different lengths of cut-off, under the same conditions of pressure and speed. The values of x_c obtained ranged from 0.413 to 0.943, covering the range usually found in practice with the type of engine used.

The values of n for the expansion curves were obtained by means of the logarithmic diagram (see Appendix 1). The value of x_c given in the log is the average of the results obtained from one set of head-end and crank-end diagrams for each test. The unit of measurement, therefore, was the revolution, as the values of x_c for the head and crank-ends cannot be measured separately when one exhaust pipe is used for both ends of the cylinder. The value of n given for one test is the average of the separate values from the expansion curves of the head-end and crank-end diagrams, taken

from the set of diagrams already mentioned.

4. *Number of Tests.*—Seventy five tests in 16 series were run. Of this number, 60 tests in 14 series were selected as fulfilling the requirements decided upon to give reliable data. Each series consisted of 4 to 5 separate tests, differing from each other only in the length of cut-off, with the same conditions of pressure and speed. All tests were run with the steam exhausting from the cylinder at about atmospheric pressure into a surface condenser. The length of cut-off was varied in nearly uniform steps from about 5 per cent to 45 per cent of the length of the stroke, and was the means of varying the value of x_c when using either saturated or superheated steam.

The 14 series were divided into 2 divisions of 7 series each; one division being run with saturated steam, and the other with steam superheated to 500° F. at the superheater. Each division consisted of 5 series run at different gauge pressures at constant speed, and 2 series run at different speeds with constant pressure. The steam pressures used were 57.5, 76.5, 95, 113, and 132 lb. gauge with the engine running at 120 r. p. m. The other speeds employed were 90 r. p. m. and 150 r. p. m. at the gauge pressure of 113 lb. Each division, therefore, gave the effect of the use of 5 steam pressures at constant speed, and 3 speeds at constant pressure.

The governor change-speed device was always set to give the desired speed with the engine running at no-load. As the load was increased, the speed decreased through the action of the governor in about the same proportion for all initial speeds. Whenever speed is mentioned, the no-load speed is the one referred to, the exact speed for any one test being given in the general log.

The general log of the 29 tests run with saturated steam is given in Table 1. Table 2 contains the results of the 31 tests run with superheated steam. Table 3 gives the averages of similar series, called groups, run at the same pressure and speed, with both saturated and superheated steam. For any one group of the two series of tests, as has already been pointed out, the only variables are the length of cut-off, and the value of x_c .

1. *Values of n obtained under different conditions from the same engine cylinder.*—All the simultaneous values of x_c and n obtained from the 60 tests were plotted in Fig. 1. A study of this figure shows beyond question that as x_c increases in value, n increases also. The values all lie in a region which has a definite trend towards higher simultaneous values of x_c and n . Observing the

TABLE 1. GENERAL LOG—TESTS WITH SATURATED STEAM

Date of Test	Series	No. of Test	Laboratory Designation	Pressure lb. per sq. in.				Revolutions per Hour	Weight of Condensate lb. per Hour.	Weight of Condensate lb. per Revolution.	Lb. of Steam per Revolution Shown by Indicator	Lb. of Compression Saved per Revolution by Indicator	Lb. of Steam Mixture Actually Present per Revolution	Quality of Steam Mix- ture at Cut-off.	Absolute Pressure at Cut-off. lb.	Average Value of n from Expansion Curves	Cut-off, per cent of Stroke	Average Absolute Pres- sure at Cut-off for Series.
				At Throttle by Gauge	Barometer	Absolute Pressure at Throttle	Average Absolute Pressure of Series at Throttle											
4-11-10	I	1	S 60-12-120	57.8	14.3	72.1	71.3	6498	1054	0.1840	0.0929	0.0816	0.1888	0.492	60.3	0.926	14.6	60.6
4-16-10		2	S 15	57.3	14.2	71.5		6100	1044.5	0.1811	0.1067	0.0261	0.2032	0.510	61.5	0.892	16.5	
5-12-10		4	S 32	55.8	14.5	70.3		6302	2010	0.3189	0.3669	0.0276	0.2635	0.606	60.2	0.961	41.2	
4-13-10	II	6	S 80-13-120	77.0	14.3	91.3		6816	1010	0.1475	0.0846	0.0235	0.1710	0.495	76.8	0.927	8.1	77.9
4-16-10		7	S 25	77.7	14.2	90.9		6410	1244	0.2149	0.1261	0.0240	0.2379	0.539	80.2	0.945	15.7	
5-12-10		8	S 38	75.6	14.5	90.1		6440	2104	0.3168	0.2689	0.0253	0.2431	0.610	77.4	0.949	30.9	
5-12-10		9	S 15	75.0	14.5	89.5		6382	2559	0.4073	0.2727	0.0260	0.4553	0.659	77.4	0.950	42.6	
4-8-10	IV	15	S 100-15-120	95.8	14.3	110.1		6940	1018	0.1510	0.0903	0.0268	0.1746	0.517	95.6	0.910	6.1	
4-16-10		16	S 31	96.0	14.2	110.2		6510	1530	0.2550	0.1462	0.0256	0.2756	0.531	96.6	0.887	14.6	
4-16-10		17	S 33	94.9	14.2	109.9	109.1	6432	1364	0.402	0.1533	0.0253	0.2655	0.569	96.2	0.914	15.5	95.3
5-11-10		18	S 47	94.5	14.4	108.9		6130	2296	0.3004	0.2145	0.0246	0.3560	0.596	92.5	0.906	25.4	
5-11-10		19	S 57	93.6	14.4	108.0		6110	2738	0.4502	0.3062	0.0263	0.4565	0.647	95.6	1.002	37.0	
5-10-10		20	S 60	94.0	14.4	106.4		5953	3008	0.5048	0.3484	0.0248	0.5268	0.658	96.1	0.963	44.3	
4-11-10	V	22	S 120-16-120	114.6	14.3	128.9		7046	1030	0.1461	0.0907	0.0269	0.1700	0.533	105.5	0.835	4.8	109.4
4-16-10		23	S 34	113.7	14.2	127.9	127.7	6968	1566	0.2341	0.1445	0.0240	0.2581	0.610	110.0	0.944	11.3	
4-16-10		24	S 40	113.6	14.2	127.6		6168	1736	0.2687	0.1776	0.0227	0.2914	0.610	109.1	0.940	15.7	
4-29-10		25	S 62	112.0	14.3	126.2		6736	2664	0.3664	0.2708	0.0253	0.4307	0.644	118.0	1.004	27.3	
4-11-10	VI	27	S 140-16-120	131.9	14.3	146.2		7086	996	0.1391	0.0941	0.0240	0.1631	0.576	126.7	0.946	3.7	
4-16-10		28	S 34	132.2	14.2	147.4	146.2	6962	1466	0.2126	0.1426	0.0231	0.2867	0.602	120.8	0.950	12.3	
4-16-10		29	S 40	132.0	14.2	146.2		6306	2006	0.3172	0.2050	0.0250	0.3592	0.604	130.0	1.006	16.4	129.4
4-26-10		30	S 68	130.8	14.2	145.0		6640	2716	0.4087	0.2760	0.0256	0.4343	0.635	128.5	1.008	24.2	
5-10-10		31	S 77	132.0	14.4	146.4		6136	3276	0.5537	0.3763	0.0269	0.5606	0.671	130.6	1.010	35.3	
5-9-10	VII	32	S 120-14-90	113.9	14.4	128.3		5258	1025	0.1949	0.0909	0.0251	0.2270	0.413	112.1	0.854	4.9	
5-9-10		33	S 30	113.9	14.4	128.3	128.4	5102	1585	0.3106	0.1641	0.0242	0.2548	0.490	113.2	0.932	12.8	113.7
5-2-10		34	S 41	114.1	14.4	128.5		4940	2080	0.4250	0.2408	0.0246	0.4176	0.537	115.7	0.980	23.2	
5-2-10	VIII	36	S 120-24-160	113.3	14.4	127.7		8772	1616	0.1942	0.1136	0.0260	0.2108	0.540	108.4	0.927	7.7	
5-2-10		37	S 55	114.2	14.4	128.6	127.9	8516	2554	0.2998	0.1990	0.0254	0.3663	0.612	110.3	0.964	19.7	110.3
5-2-10		38	S 79	112.8	14.4	127.2		8182.5	3520	0.4502	0.3040	0.0256	0.4558	0.676	110.1	1.045	34.4	
5-2-10		39	S 91	113.5	14.4	127.9		7695	4142.5	0.5433	0.3966	0.0259	0.5062	0.697	112.2	1.016	46.0	

TABLE 2. GENERAL LOG TESTS WITH SUPERHEATED STEAM

Date of Test	Series	No. of Test	Laboratory Designation	Pressure lb per sq. in.				Revolutions per Hour	Weight of Condensate per Hour.	Weight of Condensate per Revolution.	Lb. of Steam per Revolution at Cut-off	Lb. of Compression Saved per Revolution by Indicator	Lb. of Steam Mixture Actually Present per Revolution	Quality of Steam Mixture at Cut-off.	Absolute Pressure at Cut-off.	Average Value of Expansion Curves	Cut-off, Per Cent of Stroke	Average Absolute Pressure at Cut-off for Series.
				At Throttle by Gauge	Barometer	Absolute Pressure at Throttle	Average Absolute Pressure of Series at Throttle											
2-17-11	IX	40	500°-60-8-120	59.5	14.5	74.0	73.4	7040	915	0.1158	0.0638	0.0232	0.1390	0.602	61.2	0.904	11.7	61.1
		41	500°-60-8-120	60.5	14.5	6956		1058	0.1543	0.1235	0.0239	0.1792	0.603	61.6	0.903	11.6		
		42	500°-60-8-120	57.7	14.3	72.2		6822	1268	0.1973	0.1738	0.0237	0.2503	0.599	60.8	1.114	32.0	
		43	500°-60-8-120	57.8	14.5	72.3		6822	1396	0.2229	0.2110	0.0237	0.2456	0.589	60.8	1.144	41.3	
2-18-11	X	44	500°-80-10-120	76.1	14.5	90.6	91.0	6653	1201.7	0.1806	0.1106	0.0246	0.2032	0.539	79.2	0.961	12.4	78.5
		45	500°-80-10-120	77.4	14.5	6550		1244	0.1976	0.1312	0.0250	0.2226	0.603	79.2	0.967	16.5		
		46	500°-80-10-120	76.3	14.5	6540		1243	0.2313	0.1910	0.0230	0.2643	0.751	77.4	1.105	37.6		
		47	500°-80-10-120	76.4	14.5	5908		1822	0.3064	0.2720	0.0236	0.3010	0.822	78.0	1.118	41.5		
2-17-10	XI	48	500°-100-12-120	94.3	14.5	108.8	108.0	7112	922	0.1156	0.0677	0.0232	0.1394	0.634	92.8	0.994	6.1	94.1
		49	500°-100-12-120	93.5	14.5	8270		1270	0.1831	0.1311	0.0234	0.2165	0.685	90.7	0.982	13.3		
		50	500°-100-12-120	93.0	14.5	6682		1660	0.2481	0.2040	0.0236	0.2710	0.753	97.1	1.040	22.8		
		51	500°-100-12-120	94.7	14.4	6500		2000	0.2735	0.2479	0.0230	0.2958	0.858	96.4	1.116	28.8		
2-18-11	XII	52	500°-120-14-120	95.1	14.4	108.5	128.4	6340	2072	0.3531	0.2631	0.0236	0.3547	0.796	93.6	1.001	39.2	111.0
		53	500°-120-14-120	115.9	14.4	7100		914	0.1267	0.0972	0.0234	0.1511	0.642	111.5	0.991	5.1		
		54	500°-120-14-120	114.3	14.4	6638		1380	0.1991	0.1561	0.0235	0.2216	0.706	109.0	0.990	18.0		
		55	500°-120-14-120	114.1	14.4	6632		1906	0.2861	0.2419	0.0236	0.3079	0.783	111.7	1.032	22.9		
2-18-11	XIV	56	500°-140-16-120	114.1	14.3	128.4	145.4	6226	2315	0.3660	0.2820	0.0231	0.3679	0.833	111.5	1.140	35.1	128.5
		57	500°-140-16-120	112.3	14.3	5940		3550	0.3956	0.3709	0.0228	0.4124	0.846	111.5	1.209	40.3		
		61	500°-140-17-120	132.5	14.3	7196		922	0.1292	0.0933	0.0234	0.1520	0.615	127.7	0.989	3.2		
		62	500°-140-17-120	128.0	14.4	7010		1284	0.1974	0.1535	0.0239	0.2108	0.715	123.6	0.969	11.0		
2-17-11	XV	63	500°-160-18-120	131.5	14.3	145.6	145.4	6810	1789	0.3627	0.2531	0.0228	0.2955	0.817	131.0	1.074	18.1	128.5
		64	500°-160-18-120	131.0	14.3	6602		2171	0.3358	0.3113	0.0222	0.3510	0.467	130.5	1.190	24.9		
		65	500°-160-18-120	132.6	14.5	6086		2040	0.4396	0.3968	0.0230	0.4566	0.873	129.5	1.165	37.1		
		66	500°-160-18-120	114.8	14.5	5322		806	0.1518	0.0950	0.0220	0.1768	0.546	112.3	0.946	4.6		
2-17-11	XVI	67	500°-180-20-120	144.2	14.5	129.3	128.0	5212	1218	0.2357	0.1540	0.0223	0.2569	0.602	111.1	0.911	12.4	111.7
		68	500°-180-20-120	144.2	14.5	5018		1574	0.3137	0.2593	0.0236	0.3363	0.700	110.7	1.013	23.1		
		69	500°-180-20-120	112.7	14.5	4817		1809	0.3755	0.3078	0.0217	0.3972	0.774	112.5	1.148	32.0		
		70	500°-180-20-120	127.3	14.5	8700		1512	0.1798	0.1447	0.0249	0.1987	0.729	108.0	1.068	12.3		
2-17-11	XVII	71	500°-180-20-120	112.8	14.5	127.3	126.9	8438	2018	0.2392	0.1560	0.0227	0.2649	0.796	109.0	1.091	30.5	108.3
		72	500°-180-20-120	111.6	14.5	8064		2458	0.3041	0.2970	0.0236	0.3977	0.907	107.2	1.213	32.4		
		73	500°-180-20-120	112.2	14.5	7494		3110	0.4150	0.4135	0.0257	0.4387	0.943	106.8	1.234	46.9		
		74	500°-180-20-120	112.6	14.5													

TABLE 3
LOG OF GROUP AVERAGES

Group	Series	No. of Tests Inclusive	Laboratory Designation	Pressure lb. per sq. in.			Absolute Pressure from Indicator Diagram, lb. per sq. in.				Specific Volume of Steam at Pressure Adopted	Number of Tests in Series	Number of Tests in Group	Number of Diagrams Analyzed	Average Quality of Steam Mixture at Cut-off from Tests in Group	Average Value of <i>n</i> from Tests in Group	
				Average Absolute Pressure at Throttle by (Innue)	Average Absolute Pressure of Group	Difference from Group Average of Next Lower Pressure	Average at Cut-off	Average of (Group)	Difference from (Group Average of Next Lower Pressure)	Drop in Pressure Throttle to Pressure at Cut-off							To Find Quality of Steam Mixture at Cut-off
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
A	I	2-4	8-100-120	71.3	72.4		60.6	60.9		11.5	61.0	7.06	3	7	14	0.6500	0.998
	IX	40-13	500-140-120	73.4			61.1						4				
B	II	0-9	8-80-120	90.5	90.8	18.4	77.9	78.2	17.3	12.6	78.0	5.60	4	8	16	0.6235	0.981
	X	41-47	500-80-120	91.0			78.5						4				
C	IV	15-30	8-100-120	109.1	109.1	18.3	95.3	91.7	16.5	14.4	95.0	4.65	6	11	22	0.6515	0.976
	XI	48-52	500-100-120	109.0			91.1						5				
D	V	22-25	8-120-150	127.7	127.9	18.8	109.4	110.7	16.0	17.2	111.0	4.012	4	9	18	0.6885	1.010
	VII	32-34	8-120-150	128.4			113.7						3	7	14	0.5903	0.967
E	VIII	36-38	8-120-150	127.9			110.3						4	8	16	0.7363	1.073
	XIII	53-57	500-120-150	128.4			111.0						5				
F	XIV	66-69	500-120-150	128.0			111.7						4				
	XVI	71-74	500-120-150	128.9			108.3						4				
G	VI	27-31	8-140-120	146.2	145.8	17.9	129.4	129.0	18.3	16.8	129.0	3.478	5	10	20	0.6995	1.020
	XIV	61-65	500-140-120	145.4			128.5						5				

general trend, it is seen that there is no exception to this general relation. No value of n below 1.00, for instance, is found for values of x_c above 0.80, and no value of n above 1.10 is found for values of x_c below 0.72.

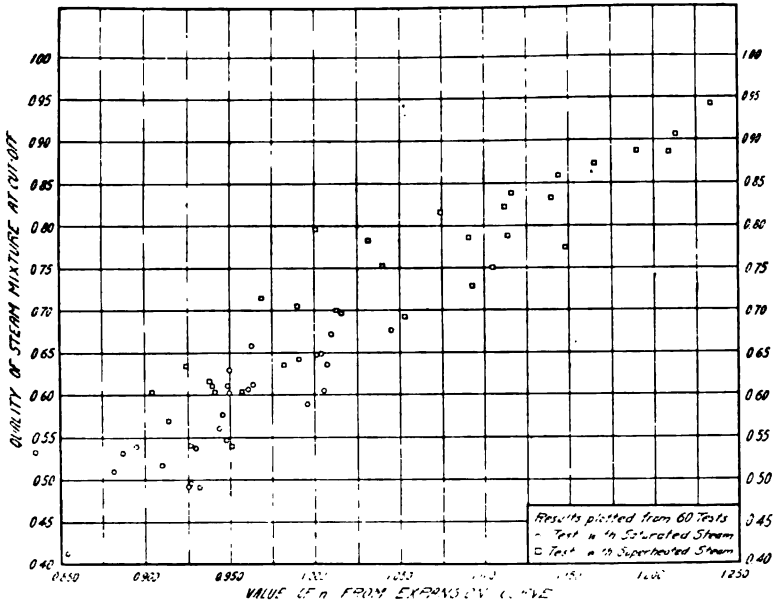


FIG. 1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN QUALITY AT CUT-OFF AND THE VALUE OF n FOR VARIOUS PRESSURES AND SPEEDS

It is also apparent that the points with long cut-off, obtained from saturated steam for given values of x_c and n , are in the same region occupied by the points with short cut-off obtained from superheated steam for the same given values of x_c and n . Examining the region of $n=0.90-1.00$ and of $x_c=0.50-0.70$, it may be seen that the points obtained with long cut-off with saturated steam, and with short cut-off with superheated steam, lie together indiscriminately. This shows conclusively, in a general way, that the value of n is practically independent of the length of cut-off, even though this length may vary from 5 per cent to 45 per cent, and that n depends solely on the value of x_c , the only other variable.

The points shown in Fig. 1 occupy a relatively wide region until they are separated into the various groups of similar pressures and speeds. The points for each group were plotted separately, and separate curves were determined for each condition. From preliminary plotting, the relations between n and x_c were found to be expressed closer by straight lines than by any other

family of curves. The method used to draw these lines will be given for group *F*, which includes series 8, with 4 tests, and series 16 with 4 tests. This group is shown in Fig. 2. All points

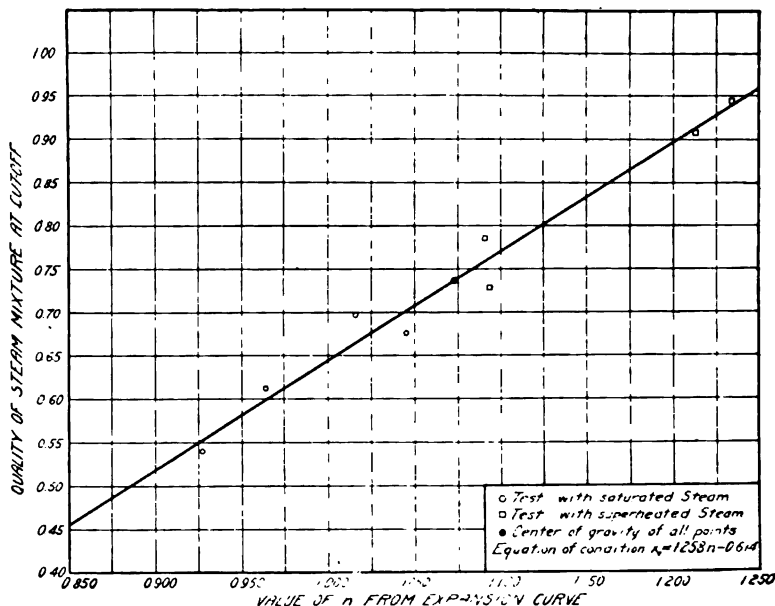


FIG. 2. RELATION OF QUALITY AND THE VALUE OF *n* FOR TESTS RUN AT 111 POUNDS ABSOLUTE PRESSURE OF CUT-OFF AND 150 R. P. M.

were given equal weight. The average of all the coordinates, or the "center of gravity" was found and the condition imposed that the line pass through this center as an axis, and that the slope be determined by the position of the points. The points in group *F* were divided into four logical pairs or groupings, and the center of gravity found for each grouping. The line was then drawn as shown. Where points were located so that a logical grouping was in doubt, various groupings were made, and each given weight in determining the slope.

The equation of the curve selected is $x_c = 1.258n - 0.614$. The average deviation of the points from this line is 2.6 per cent (measured from the zero of x_c) and the maximum deviation is 4.6 per cent. This average deviation, 2.6 per cent, is smaller than that for most of the groups. The straight line, in most cases, represents the points found as closely as any other curve that could be employed, and has the merit of simplifying greatly the subsequent use made of the relations for the different groups.

The values of n for group F were also plotted to the various accompanying cut-off positions at which each test was run. This is shown in Fig. 3. The points in Fig. 3 show that for each initial condition of steam, the value of n increased as the cut-off was lengthened, and that with any given cut-off, different values of n were obtained according as saturated or superheated steam was used. Thus, at a cut-off of 15 per cent, the value of n obtained is 0.950 with saturated steam, and 1.084 with superheated steam. The only variable present in these two cases is x_c , the value of which is higher with superheated steam than with saturated steam. A definite relation between n and cut-off occurs only when a given cut-off is accompanied by the same value of x_c , i. e., the value of n bears a direct relation to x_c but not to cut-off. Fig. 3 taken in conjunction with Fig. 2, proves that the value of n depends directly only upon the value of x_c , and that the relation of n

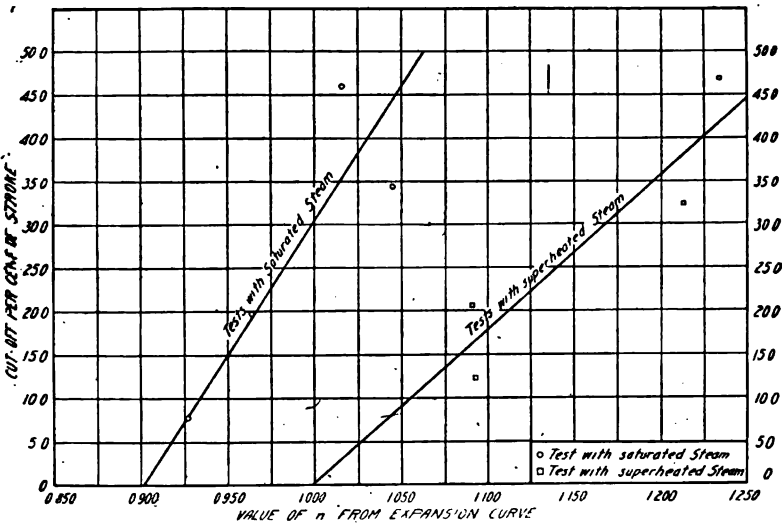


FIG. 3. RELATIONS OF PER CENT OF CUT-OFF AND THE VALUE OF n FOR TESTS RUN AT 111 POUNDS ABSOLUTE PRESSURE AT CUT-OFF AND 150 R. P. M.

and x_c is practically independent of the length of cut-off within the limits of the tests.

(a) *Effect of varying the steam pressure at constant speed.*—The relations of x_c and n were determined separately for all groups by the method outlined for Fig. 3. The lines for the five pressures used, comprising the results of groups A, B, C, D, and G, were replotted as shown in Fig. 4. This figure also contains other curves that are discussed in Appendix 1. The lines shown give

the relations of x_c and n for various absolute pressures at cut-off, all obtained with a speed of 120 r. p. m.

These curves were then examined to find the effect of varying the absolute pressure at cut-off (designated as p) on the relations of x_c and n . In Fig. 4, the constant pressure curves were intercepted at constant values of n , and the coordinates of x_c and p for the points of intersection plotted in Fig. 5. This process was repeated at intervals of 0.05, for the values of n from 0.850 to 1.250. The curves were adopted as shown. The method used was as follows: the maximum value, from the evidence of Fig. 4, was assumed to be at the value, $p = 95$; the values of $p = 61$ and $p = 78$ were combined, and the center of the line connecting each pair used as one point; with these assumptions the curves were drawn.

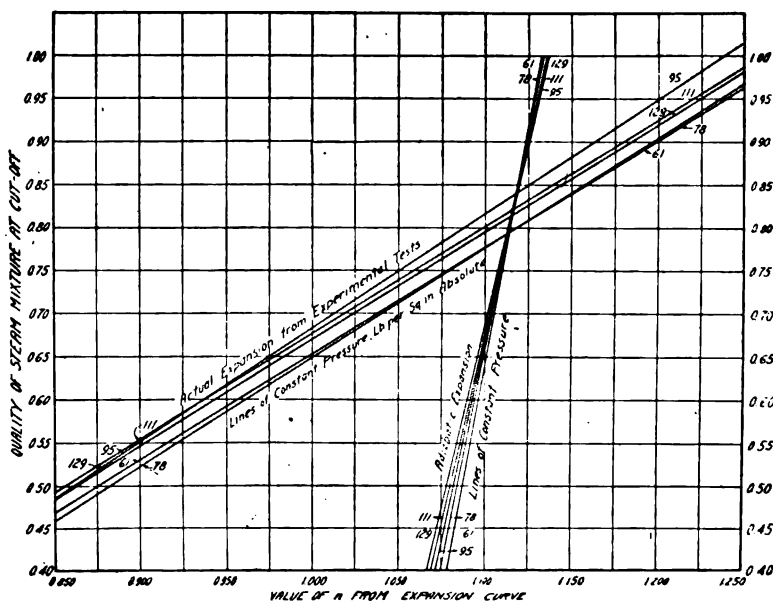


FIG. 4. RELATIONS AT CUT-OFF BETWEEN QUALITY AND THE VALUE OF n FOR VARIOUS PRESSURES AT CONSTANT SPEED

Since the relation of x_c and n at constant speed and pressure is a straight line, the curves of Fig. 5 were drawn by interpolation to increments in the value of n to 0.01.

This procedure gave a series of relations between x_c and p for constant values of n . Since, however, the independent variables, in any actual curve under examination, are n and p , the coordinates of the curves of Fig. 5 were changed so as to show the relations of n and p at constant values of x_c . These relations are

shown in Fig. 6.

The effect of a change of pressure on the relations of x_c and n is not great between the limits of 75 to 150 lb. An approximate equation has been worked out, therefore, which represents the

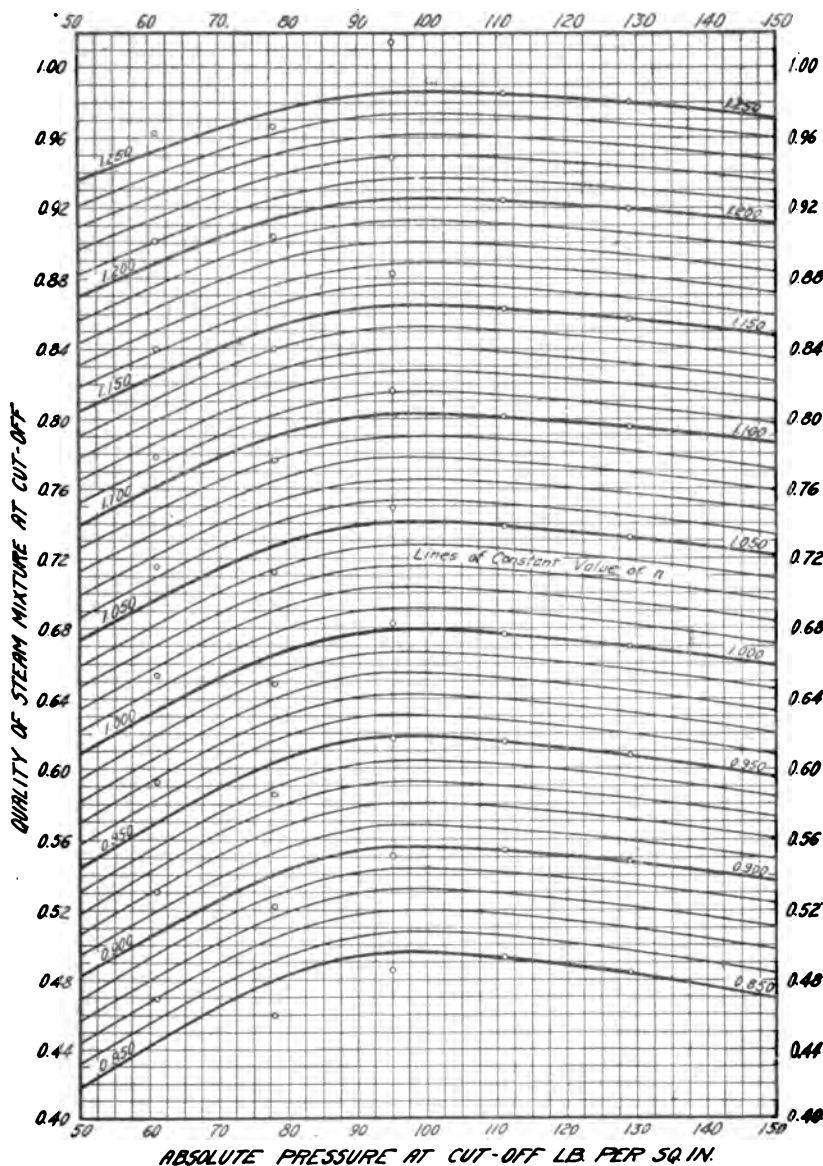


FIG. 5. CHART SHOWING THE RELATION AT CUT-OFF BETWEEN QUALITY AND PRESSURE FOR CONSTANT VALUES OF n FROM EXPANSION CURVE

relations of x_c and n at an average pressure between the limits mentioned. The equation corresponds to the relations at 129 lb. and is of the form

$$x_c = 1.245 n - 0.576.$$

(b) *Effect of varying the speed at constant pressure.*—Groups D, E, and F, were run at speeds of 120, 90 and 150 r. p. m., respectively, with the average cut-off pressure on the diagrams constant at 111 lb. absolute. The regulation of the governor was very poor, there being about a 10 per cent drop in speed from no load to full load. For this reason, the relations of x_c and n with various speeds at constant pressure were affected by considerable variation of the speed itself for each group. The relations for each group were found as already described, and the curves plotted in Fig. 7. The relation of speed (designated as s) and x_c for constant values of n was derived from Fig. 7, and is given in Fig. 8.

The apparent relations of x_c , s , and n , obtained by drawing a smooth curve through the three points obtained for each value of n , are not satisfactory, owing to insufficient data and the change of the speed itself in the three groups due to poor regulation. The drop in the speed, for one group, does not seriously affect, however, the relations of x_c and n for the various pressures at constant speed.

2. *Relation of the value of n to the quality of the steam mixture at cut-off.*—From the evidence obtained from these tests, it may be stated that, for any one engine, running at a given pressure and speed, there is a definite relation between x_c and n which is practically independent of the cut-off position within the limits examined. This relation is apparently a linear one. It may also be stated that the relation of x_c and n is dependent, to some extent, on the absolute pressure at cut-off, and on the speed of the engine.

It remained to compare the relations of x_c and n for the engine tested with the relations for other engines. This comparison is made in the next section.

An investigation of the value of k for adiabatic expansion, (see page 83, Appendix 1) shows that there is a relation between the initial quality x_1 and the value of k which, like the experimentally determined relation, is also a linear one. The adiabatic relations of x and k are plotted in Fig. 4, for the pressures used in the tests.

Acknowledgment is made of the assistance rendered, in running these tests, by the following senior students, viz., Messrs. Jacobsen, Schuster, Parmely, Hodgson, Janda, Butzer and Wood, Class of 1910, and Messrs. Hasberg, Hagedorn, Allen, Herrcke, Cobb and Ponder, Class of 1911.

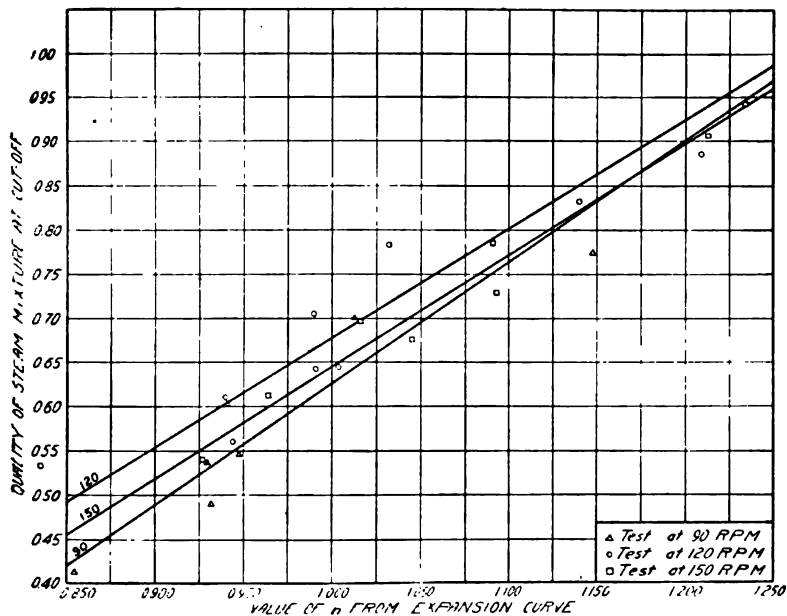


FIG. 7. RELATIONS OF QUALITY AT CUT-OFF AND THE VALUES OF n FOR VARIOUS SPEEDS AT THE CONSTANT CUT-OFF PRESSURE OF 111 POUNDS

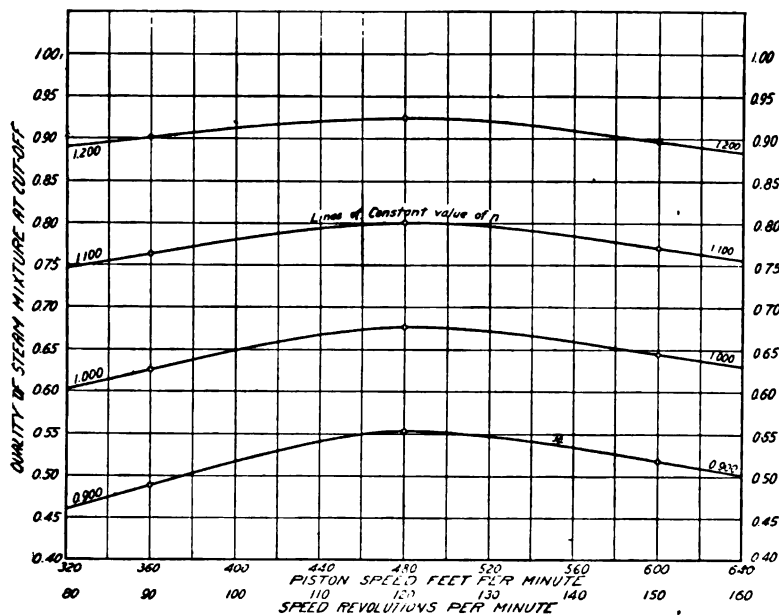


FIG. 8. RELATIONS AT CUT-OFF BETWEEN QUALITY AND SPEED FOR CONSTANT VALUES OF n AT CONSTANT PRESSURE

III. THE APPROXIMATION OF THE ACTUAL STEAM CONSUMPTION FROM INDICATOR DIAGRAMS

5. *Engine Tests.*—The most reliable method of determining the steam consumption of an engine is to measure or weigh the water directly, preferably by means of a surface condenser. This method necessitates an elaborate test, which disturbs the routine of the plant tested, and is very costly for long tests of large engines. The objections to tests of this kind are many, and a few of them will be stated. When the boiler feed is measured, both the engine and the boilers serving it have to be entirely disconnected from other units, sometimes necessitating shutting down the rest of the plant. Almost all tests, where there is more than one unit, necessitate changes in heavy and permanent piping. Boilers are apt to leak in service, and the measurements of the leaks are unsatisfactory. One serious objection to long time tests is that the different rates of steam consumption cannot be segregated. The ideal method of testing a steam engine would be a method analagous to that used with electrical machines, i. e., to measure instantaneous *rates* of consumption instead of the water consumed over a long time.

6. *The Missing Quantity.*—On account of the cost and difficulties of making a test, many engineers have devised methods of approximating the steam consumption without actually measuring it.

When indicator diagrams were first obtained, the loss from initial condensation, or the existence of the "missing quantity", was not suspected. The opinion, therefore, was that the consumption could be measured from the steam shown by the diagram at cut-off. After Clark¹ and Isherwood² made their tests the existence and amount of this initial condensation were revealed. The very great difference in the proportion that this initial condensation bears to the total weight of mixture present, either at cut-off or during the expansion, that is found in different types and sizes of engines has prevented any reliable determinations of the actual steam consumption by this method. The steam consumption computed from the diagram, when using saturated steam, is generally from 15 per cent to 50 per cent below the actual consumption.

The devising of an accurate method of measuring the actual weight of steam consumed from the diagram has therefore been

¹ Railway Machinery

² Engineering Researches.

regarded as impossible. Thurston³ states that "the steam or water consumption of an engine cannot be exactly ascertained by the use of the indicator" for the reasons mentioned. Most other writers on the subject have expressed similar views.

7. *Approximation of the Initial Condensation.*—Methods of computing the weight or proportion of the "missing quantity", from the dimensions, type, and speed of the engine considered, as shown by the results of large numbers of tests, have been devised by Thurston⁴, Escher⁵, Marks⁶, Fourier, English⁶, Bodmer⁷, Cotterill⁸, Heck⁹, and others. The results obtained from these methods have not been uniform, and do not agree closely enough with the test results to be used with confidence. Moreover, none of these methods is applicable when superheated steam is used. Professor Heck¹⁰ states that the steam consumption computed by the use of his formula should ordinarily show not more than 10 per cent difference from the test results.

8. *The Relation of x_c and n .*—The relation of x_c and n , for the same engine, has been shown to be very definite under the same conditions of pressure and speed. This relation, or dependence, of n upon x_c , however, is not seriously affected by changes of pressure and speed, within the limits of the tests. The ordinary speeds of similar types of engines, 70 to 120 r. p. m., do not affect the relation seriously enough to be taken into account when examining such cases, because of the two-fold character of speed in its influence upon the action of the cylinder walls.

The engine experimented upon was operated at 120 r. p. m., and had a stroke of 2 ft. Other engines of this class run at speeds as low as 70 r. p. m., but have strokes of 5 or 6 ft. Cylinder condensation is not dependent upon rotative speed alone, but is also influenced by the piston speed, as determined by the length of the stroke. On account of different lengths of stroke, different engines cannot be compared on the basis of rotative speed. Thus while the small engine tested has a rotative speed of 120 r. p. m., its piston speed is only 480 ft. per minute. In large engines, while the rotative speed may be only 70 r. p. m., yet, with strokes of 6 ft., the piston speed is 840 ft. per minute. What the smaller engine gained by higher rotative speed, the large engine made up in a measure by higher piston speed.

³ Engine and Boiler Trials, p. 237.

⁴ A Manual of the Steam Engine, p. 517.

⁵ Engineer (London), 1882. [p. 306.]

⁶ Relative Proportions of the Steam Engine,

Proceedings of the Brit. Inst. of M. E., Oct. 1882.

⁷ Engineering (London), Mar. 4, 1892, p. 299.

⁸ The Steam Engine, p. 232.

⁹ The Steam Engine, p. 109.

¹⁰ The Steam Engine, p. 119.

After taking into account the two parts of which speed is composed, it is found that the speeds of stationary engines of the type tested are in substantially the same range. On account of this fact, only the results of the tests run at 120 r. p. m. have been used in the applications made at present.

The relation of x_c and n has been found to be practically independent of cylinder size. This statement is true for non-jacketed cylinders and for pressures in the range examined. This is shown in a general way in the following discussion for saturated steam.

9. *The Phenomena Occurring in the Cylinder.*—Cast-iron is universally used for steam cylinders. The greatest source of loss in the cylinder is due primarily to the use of a metallic structure, from practical considerations. The skin surface of this metal, which is a fairly good conductor of heat, must be heated once every cycle from the temperature acquired from contact with the exhaust steam, up to nearly the temperature of the admission steam, this heating being accomplished by the condensation of some of the incoming steam. The amount of this condensation, measured as the proportion of the mixture present, varies with the size, valve design, relative roughness of the interior surface, temperature range, length of cut-off, speed, location of ports and port passages, quality of the steam supplied, and the jacketing and lagging. It can easily be seen, from the number and relative magnitude of these variables, that the computation of the weight of condensation, by means of a formula which will take these variables into account, can never be an accurate operation.

After many examinations into the cases of different types and sizes of engines, with non-jacketed cylinders in good order, and with pressure limits similar to those used with the tests, it has been found that while the initial condensation is subject to the action of ten or more variables, yet the value of n resulting from a given value of x_c is almost always substantially the same. A few of the applications showing this point will be found in Table 4. Here the cylinder sizes vary from 10½ in. x 12 in. to 34.2 in. x 60 in., the speeds from 48 to 263 r. p. m., and the types include slow-speed Corliss, high speed, and locomotive engines. The possibility of calculating accurately the weight of condensation in these different cases may be easily imagined.

The phenomena caused by the presence of the cylinder walls, in the class of engines discussed, have been found to be divided into two natural classes: those occurring before cut-off, and those

occurring after cut-off. The phenomena occurring before cut-off are controlled by the action of the ten or more variables already mentioned, and therefore are subject to all the variation that may occur in any individual case to be examined. For this reason, any method of computing the condensation accurately from the physical facts surrounding the case is open to objection. This method also cannot allow for the use of superheated steam, an increasingly important condition. The phenomena occurring after cut-off are practically independent of all variables except x_c , and initial pressure and speed. Of these variables, only the value of x_c and the initial pressure have proved to be of material importance in the applications made thus far. This may be summed up by stating that the value of x_c , in any particular case, is subject to the action of many important variables, but that the relation of x_c and n is practically independent of these variables within the limits examined in this investigation.

10. *The Phenomena of Condensation and Re-evaporation during Expansion.*—When adiabatic expansion of initially dry saturated steam takes place, a part of the steam is condensed as the pressure is lowered, the condensed steam giving up its latent heat which is converted into work. When superheated steam is expanded adiabatically, the steam loses its superheat until saturation is reached, after which condensation takes place as in the case of initially dry steam.

When, however, the steam is initially composed of a large proportion of water, both being at the same temperature, adiabatic expansion may take place without additional condensation and may even be accompanied by re-evaporation. This fact is due to the large amount of heat contained in the water, a part of which flashes into steam as the pressure is lowered, thus supplying and neutralizing the loss of steam volume by condensation which takes place with steam initially dry. Adiabatic expansion is accompanied by condensation when the initial quality is above the value 0.50 at an initial pressure of 240 lb. per sq. in. absolute, but below the value of 0.50, it is accompanied by re-evaporation. An examination of Table 20 will show the values of the initial quality which form the line of demarcation of condensation and re-evaporation during the adiabatic change of state.

In the actual engine using saturated steam, as has already been pointed out, some of the incoming steam is condensed in warming up the surface of the cylinder walls to approximately the temperature of the incoming steam. When the admission of

TABLE 5
CONDENSATION AND RE-EVAPORATION OF STEAM DURING EXPANSION

Example No.....	1	2
Initial Quality, Parts of Unity.....	0.540	0.950
PRESSURES, LB. PER SQ. IN. ABSOLUTE		
Initial.....	145.0	145.0
Final.....	30.0	30.0
VALUE OF n IN EQUATION $PV^n = C$		
Adiabatic expansion, from Table 30.....	1.082	1.133
Actual expansion in engine tested, from Fig. 6.....	0.900	1.230
VOLUME OF STEAM PRESENT, CU. FT. (VOLUME OF WATER NEGLECTED)		
Initial.....	1.00	1.00
Final, adiabatic expansion.....	6.34	5.75
Final, curve of constant steam weight.....	6.44	6.44
Final, actual expansion in engine tested.....	9.04	5.00
WEIGHT OF STEAM PRESENT, LB.		
Initial, plus water.....	0.594	0.338
Initial, steam only.....	0.321	0.331
Final, adiabatic expansion.....	0.311	0.237
Final, curve of constant steam weight.....	0.321	0.331
Final, actual expansion in engine tested.....	0.450	0.249
QUALITY OF STEAM AT FINAL PRESSURE, PARTS OF UNITY		
Adiabatic expansion.....	0.524	0.849
Curve of constant steam weight.....	0.540	0.950
Actual expansion in engine tested.....	0.757	0.736
CONDENSATION OR RE-EVAPORATION, PARTS OF UNITY		
Apparent re-evaporation.....	0.217	
Real re-evaporation.....	0.233	
Apparent condensation.....		0.214
Real condensation.....		0.113

steam is cut off and expansion commences, the condensation, due to the presence of the cylinder walls, continues in general until, at some point during expansion, the water on the cylinder walls begins to re-evaporate at such a rate that the weight of steam present at the end of expansion is greater than that which was present at cut-off.

To show the effects and extreme values of condensation and re-evaporation during expansion, there have been prepared in Table 5 two examples, using the average results of tests which have been run on the engine tested (see Appendix 2).

11. *Examples.*—Example 1 is a condition which obtains in the engine tested when using saturated steam at about 140 lb. gauge pressure with a length of cut-off of about 3 per cent. All values of the qualities mentioned are portions of the total weight of mixture in parts of unity. The value of x_c is 0.540, a low value, yet one which often obtains in small engines. If this steam were expanded adiabatically to the back pressure, 20 lb. absolute, the resulting quality would be 0.524, giving a condensation of 0.016. The expansion which actually takes place in the engine tested under these conditions results in a final quality of 0.757, showing that the apparent re-evaporation from the value of x_c has been 0.217. However, the steam mixture in expanding did expand adiabatically in order to give up heat to work, but the actual or what might be called the gross expansion, was changed in character by the re-evaporation of a large proportion of the water present, due to the return of heat from the cylinder walls and the consequent flashing into steam of part of the water when the pressure and the temperature were lowered. The real re-evaporation, measured by its effect upon adiabatic expansion, has been the difference between 0.757 and 0.524 or 0.233.

The actual expansion in this case has been the result of two factors which worked simultaneously; adiabatic expansion, and the return of heat from the cylinder walls to the mixture. The first factor, adiabatic expansion, as already explained, is itself the result of two neutralizing or opposing conditions, i. e., the condensation of initially dry steam during expansion, and the relatively smaller amount of re-evaporation of water initially in the mixture due to the liberation of its excess of heat when the pressure and temperature were lowered. The net result of the two conditions of this adiabatic expansion, however, was a condensation. The second factor is the large amount of re-evaporation due to the return of heat from the surface of the cylinder walls to the condensed steam, amounting in example 1 to 0.233, or, roughly, there has been re-evaporated during expansion $\frac{1}{4}$ of the entire weight of mixture present.

Example 2 shows conditions which obtain in the engine tested when served with steam at about 140 lb. gauge pressure, superheated about 125° F. with a length of cut-off of about 45 per cent. The value of x_c is 0.950, a very high value for this class of engine. The quality after adiabatic expansion would be 0.849, a condensation of 0.101. Where values of x_c are as high as 0.950, however, no re-evaporation takes place in practice, but condensa-

tion continues throughout expansion. After expansion in the engine tested, the quality would be 0.736, showing much greater condensation than that due to adiabatic expansion alone. The apparent condensation has been 0.214, but the real condensation, measured by its effect upon adiabatic expansion, has been 0.113.

The actual expansion in example 2, as in example 1, has been the result of two factors; adiabatic expansion, and the further abstraction of heat during the whole expansion by the cylinder walls. Heat is abstracted during expansion by the cylinder in the engine tested at all values of x_c above 0.85, thus giving values of n higher than the adiabatic value k .

The phenomena of condensation and re-evaporation during expansion are the causes of the relations existing between x_c and n in the cylinders of steam engines. The two examples given show values obtained in extreme cases which illustrate very well the effect of x_c upon the character of the expansion, and therefore upon the value of n , and show the range of values that n assumes in one engine due to a change in the value of x_c .

12. *The New Method of Approximating the Value of x_c .*—The fact that the value of n depends upon the value of x_c and that the values have definite relations under definite conditions, makes it possible to reverse the order of procedure followed in obtaining the relation and to approximate the value of x_c (and, therefore, the actual steam consumed) from the value of n .

It appears, therefore, that this method of approximating the value of x_c at cut-off from experimentally determined relations, and thus accounting for the "missing quantity", is upon much surer ground than any method of computing condensation from the physical facts surrounding the case. It approaches the problem from the side where the phenomena occurring are practically independent of all the variables mentioned.

13. *Advantages of the Method.*—This method is free from several objections to which tests are open. It measures the consumption in one revolution, and is, therefore, practically measuring a rate instead of a quantity. The only data needed for an approximation are one set of indicator diagrams, taken simultaneously, the constants of size and clearance, and the speed of the engine tested. No interruption of any kind in the routine of a plant is caused, and the expense incurred is not to be compared with that of an equally accurate test. The method is accurate enough for almost all purposes except guarantee tests subject to bonus and forfeit contracts. In the case of locomotives on the road, it is

the only possible method of approximating the steam consumption of the main engines, due to the use of steam by the air-pump, train-heating system, blower, generator sets, safety valves, whistle, blow-off valves, and leaks. The same is true of marine engines, where many auxiliaries are supplied with steam from the same boilers, and exhaust into the same surface condensers. The method is especially useful for non-condensing engines, where the boiler-feed measurement method is the only practicable one. Steam consumption may be obtained as often as is desired instead of probably once in an engine's life.

14. *Limitations*—The relations of x_c and n given in chapter II are applicable, however, only to non-jacketed cylinders exhausting at very close to atmospheric pressure. When the back pressure is raised to 30 lb. absolute, for instance, there is a new series of relations existing for the same initial pressure, due to a different temperature range in the cylinder and the consequent alteration of the phenomena occurring after cut-off. Steam jackets also alter the phenomena occurring after cut-off, and therefore have to be examined separately for the relations of x_c and n . The steam used in the jackets and in reheaters has of course to be collected and weighed as heretofore.

Since this method rests entirely on the indicator diagram, great care must be observed in taking these diagrams. The indicator itself must be an accurate instrument in the best possible condition. The indicator connections must be short and direct. An extensive investigation by W. F. M. Goss¹¹ shows that the long and indirect pipe connections materially alter the form and character of the expansion curves. A correct reducing motion, free from lost motion, must be used so as to reproduce the actual expansion. The arrangement of having one indicator at each end of the cylinder is always to be preferred.

The applications of this method must be made with judgment and care. If large leakage exists, only an approximate solution can be obtained, as certain assumptions have to be made. The various steps involved in the use of the method must be thoroughly comprehended to give satisfaction.

15. *Application of the Method*.—The relations of x_c and n , as determined for various pressures at constant speed from the engine described (see Appendix 2,) were plotted in the form of the chart shown in Fig. 6.

The next step was to examine, with certain restrictions, the

¹¹Trans. A. S. M. E. XVII, p. 398.

tests of other engines, and to compare the relations of x_c and n with those given in Fig. 6. The restricting conditions imposed were: (1) that the tests should come from reliable sources; (2) that the data supplied should be complete enough to be able to compute the quantities needed for comparison; (3) that the cylinders should be non-jacketed; (4) that the diagrams furnished should be representative of average conditions; (5) that the back pressure in the cylinder examined should be practically atmospheric; (6) that no large leaks should exist.

The values of x_c , n and p were first found from the set of diagrams to be examined. Next, the values of n and p were located in Fig. 6 and the corresponding value of x_c found, as obtained in the tests given in chapter II. The value of x_c obtained from the chart and that obtained from the test examined were compared, and the steam consumption, as computed by the value of x_c taken from the chart, was obtained:

The results of tests which fulfilled the conditions imposed are given in Table 4. Four distinct classes of engines were examined. These include simple Corliss, two-valve and four-valve types, the high pressure cylinders of compound engines, the intermediate pressure cylinders of triple expansion engines, high speed, and simple locomotive engines. The sizes range from $10\frac{1}{2}$ in. x 12 in. to 34.2 in. x 60 in., and the speeds from 263 to 47.98 r. p. m.

The final results, given in columns 24, 29, 31 and 36 of Table 4 were averaged (analysis 201 excepted) and the averages are given in the following table:

APPROXIMATION FROM CHART—FIG. 6

Average Difference from Test Results	Value of X_c per cent	Actual Steam Con- sumption per cent
Irrespective of Sign.....	3.06	3.73
Higher (+) or Lower (—) than Tests Results.....	—1.93	+2.50

APPROXIMATION FROM EQUATION $X_c = 1.245n - 0.576$

Average Difference from Test Results	Value of X_c per cent	Actual Steam Con- sumption per cent
Irrespective of Sign.....	3.32	3.98
Higher (+) or Lower (—) than Test Results.....	—1.2	+1.91

m Equation $X_c = 1.345 x - 0.576$					
Revolution lb.	Weight of Steam			Percent That Total Weight of Steam per hour is Higher (+) or Lower (-) than Test Results	Method Giving Closer Approximation to Test Results, Chart (C) Equation (E)
	Passing through a Cyl. under per Revolution lb.	Passing through Cyl. under per Hour. lb.	Per l. h. p. hr. lb.		
1	23	24	25	26	27

10	1.980	8880	29.18	+4.8	E
10.2	3.345	13000	25.57	-0.5	E
10.3	1.797	6680	30.02	+3.5	E
10.32	0.8117	7445	24.00	-6.4	C
10.31	0.3774	1807	26.00	-3.8	C
10.02	0.1580	2461	25.15	+4.6	C
10.19	0.1189	1810	23.22	-2.0	E
10.21	0.0661	1031	24.72	+3.4	C
10.26	0.0447	705	27.32	+1.2	C
10.3	1.815	9245	27.00	+4.2	C
10.37	0.4607	4577	21.45	-2.8	C
10.47	0.6235	6150	29.40	+1.7	E
10.7	3.597	13160	21.40	-0.2	E
11.0	3.647	11655	22.28	+0.4	E
11.2	3.672	13280	23.63	-7.1	C

15	1.5198	6915	15.96	+2.6	C
15.75	1.226	9070	14.19	+4.6	C
15.2	0.7324	2109	14.97	+5.1	C & E

20.0	2.519	4180	12.74	-9.6	C
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40.2	0.3404	5178	28.02	+7.4	C
40.26	0.1285	1897	35.61	-9.0	C
40.21	0.1427	2128	34.48	+5.4	E

45.0	1.3163	7675	30.38	+6.9	C
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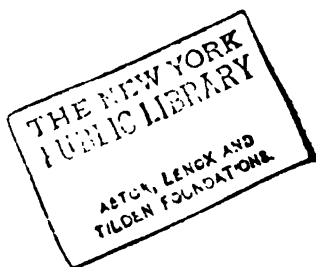
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Analysis 201 shows an application the conditions of speed and cut-off pressure of which are far outside of the limits examined. The values given were obtained by extrapolating as straight lines the lower portions of the curves of constant value of x_c in the chart of Fig. 6. Although the speed is only 27.66 r. p. m. and the cut-off pressure only 38.5 lb. absolute, the value of x_c by chart was determined as 0.470, while the value by test is 0.508, a difference of 7.5 per cent based on the test value of x_c . This application is given to show that an extrapolation of the method to unusual conditions of speed and cut-off pressure does not lead to absurd results, although it is not nearly as accurate as the applications to speeds higher than 50 r. p. m.

The results of the applications made up to the present time, with the restricting conditions imposed, tend to show that the steam consumption of engines may be approximated from the indicator diagram to within an average difference of less than 4 per cent from the test results. Individual examples, however, may show as much as 8 per cent difference in rare cases.

16. *Directions for Applying the Method to Engine Testing.*—The manner of applying the method to the class of engines tested is best illustrated by taking an actual case and tracing the steps necessary to a determination of the steam consumption. It is to be remembered that the method accounts for the actual weight of steam and water present in one revolution only as represented by the set of diagrams analyzed.

The set of diagrams to be analyzed is selected in different ways, according to the test conditions. If the load on the engine to be tested is fairly uniform, and if the average steam consumption over a period of time be desired, one set of diagrams taken simultaneously is selected after the manner described in detail in Appendix 3, p. 97. This method briefly is as follows: all diagrams taken over a period of time at equal intervals are integrated and the mean effective pressure of each diagram obtained. The combination of one set of diagrams is sought nearest to the average mean effective pressure and taken at the average steam pressure. This set is taken to represent the mean condition of power and is the set to be analyzed. If the load is extremely variable, the diagrams must be separated into groups of similar cut-off values, and one set from each group analyzed as outlined for the uniform load condition.

If it be desired to obtain a water-rate curve, the engine is operated under various loads, ranging from no-load to full-load,

and one set of diagrams, taken simultaneously is obtained at each load. Each set is analyzed and the result used to obtain the usual water-rate curve. In this case, no average diagrams are necessary as only the steam consumed at each load is desired.

It is now assumed that the set of diagrams to be analyzed is selected, that they are taken from a single-cylinder non-jacketed non-condensing Corliss engine, 28½ in. x 59½ in., the engine selected as an example being analysis 102 in Table 4.

Logarithmic diagrams of both indicator diagrams are constructed as described in detail in Appendix 1. The average value of n from the expansion curves of the head-end and crank-end diagrams is then found to be 1.108, and the average cut-off pressure 75 lb. per sq. in. absolute.

The next step is to examine Fig. 6 and locate the intersection of the vertical line for the value of $n=1.108$ with the horizontal line for the value of the absolute cut-off pressure of 75 lb. This intersection is seen to be half-way between the "lines of constant quality" of 0.79 and 0.80, giving a value of 0.795. This means that the steam accounted for by the indicator as being present in the clearance and displacement spaces up to cut-off is present at a quality of 0.795, or that it contains water to the amount of 0.205.

From the logarithmic diagram, it is found that the head-end of the cylinder contains 8.57 cu. ft. of steam at the average cut-off pressure of 75 lb. absolute, while the crank-end contains 7.83 cu. ft., making a total of 16.40 cu. ft. From the Marks and Davis steam tables, the specific value of steam at 75 lb. pressure is 5.81 cu. ft. per lb., thus accounting for 2.822 lb. of dry steam. This weight at the quality of 0.795 equals 3.551 lb., the total weight of steam and water present per revolution. In a similar manner, from the logarithmic diagram, as described in Part II, chapter X, it is found that the total weight of dry steam retained in the compression in both ends equals 0.167 lb. This compression steam is present in the amount accounted for at cut-off so that the net weight of steam passing through the cylinder per revolution is 3.551—0.167, or 3.384 lb. As the engine is running at 64.8 revolutions per minute, or 3888 revolutions per hour, the total steam consumed per hour equals $3888 \times 3.384 = 13150$ lb. From the diagrams, the indicated horse-power is found to be 506.5, thus the steam consumption is determined at 25.96 lb. per i. h. p. hour, while the condenser test of this engine from which these diagrams were taken shows a steam consumption of 25.80 lb. per i. h. p. hour, a difference of 0.6 per cent.

in Equation $Xc = 1.945 s - 0.578$				
Revolution, 10.	Weight of Steam			Method Giving Closer Approximation to Test Results, Chart (C) Equation (E)
	Passing through a Cyl. under per Revolution lb.	Passing through Cyl. under per Hour, lb.	Per l. h. p. hr. lb.	Percent That Total Weight of Steam per hour is Higher (+) or Lower (-) than Test Results
23	34	25	25	27

1	1.980	8880	29.18	+4.8	E
2	3.345	13000	25.57	-0.5	E
3	1.797	6980	30.02	+3.5	E
4	0.8117	7445	24.00	-6.4	C
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7	0.1189	1810	23.22	-2.0	C
8	0.0861	1031	24.72	+3.4	C
9	0.0447	705	27.32	+1.2	C
10	1.815	9245	27.00	+4.2	C
11	0.4807	4577	21.45	-2.8	C
12	0.6235	6150	29.40	+1.7	C
13	3.597	13160	21.40	-0.2	E
14	3.647	11655	22.28	+0.4	E
15	3.672	13280	23.62	-7.1	C

16	1.5198	6915	15.95	+2.6	C
17	1.226	9070	14.19	+4.6	C
18	0.7384	2109	14.97	+5.1	C & E

19	2.519	4180	12.74	-0.6	C
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20	0.3404	5178	28.02	+7.4	C
21	0.1265	1897	35.61	+9.0	C
22	0.1427	2128	24.48	+5.4	E

23	1.3168	7075	30.36	+6.9	C
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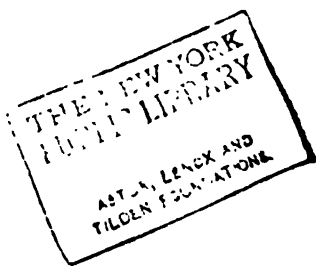
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The results of the applications made up to the present time, with the restricting conditions imposed, tend to show that the steam consumption of engines may be approximated from the indicator diagram to within an average difference of less than 4 per cent from the test results. Individual examples, however, may show as much as 8 per cent difference in rare cases.

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The set of diagrams to be analyzed is selected in different ways, according to the test conditions. If the load on the engine to be tested is fairly uniform, and if the average steam consumption over a period of time be desired, one set of diagrams taken simultaneously is selected after the manner described in detail in Appendix 3, p. 97. This method briefly is as follows: all diagrams taken over a period of time at equal intervals are integrated and the mean effective pressure of each diagram obtained. The combination of one set of diagrams is sought nearest to the average mean effective pressure and taken at the average steam pressure. This set is taken to represent the mean condition of power and is the set to be analyzed. If the load is extremely variable, the diagrams must be separated into groups of similar cut-off values, and one set from each group analyzed as outlined for the uniform load condition.

If it be desired to obtain a water-rate curve, the engine is operated under various loads, ranging from no-load to full-load,

absolute pressures, preferably in lb. per sq. in., and of absolute volumes, preferably in cu. ft. These points are plotted on logarithmic cross section paper and are connected by a smooth curve, forming a figure which will be called the logarithmic diagram. Fig. 9 shows the logarithmic diagrams derived from the PV -diagrams of Fig. 15.

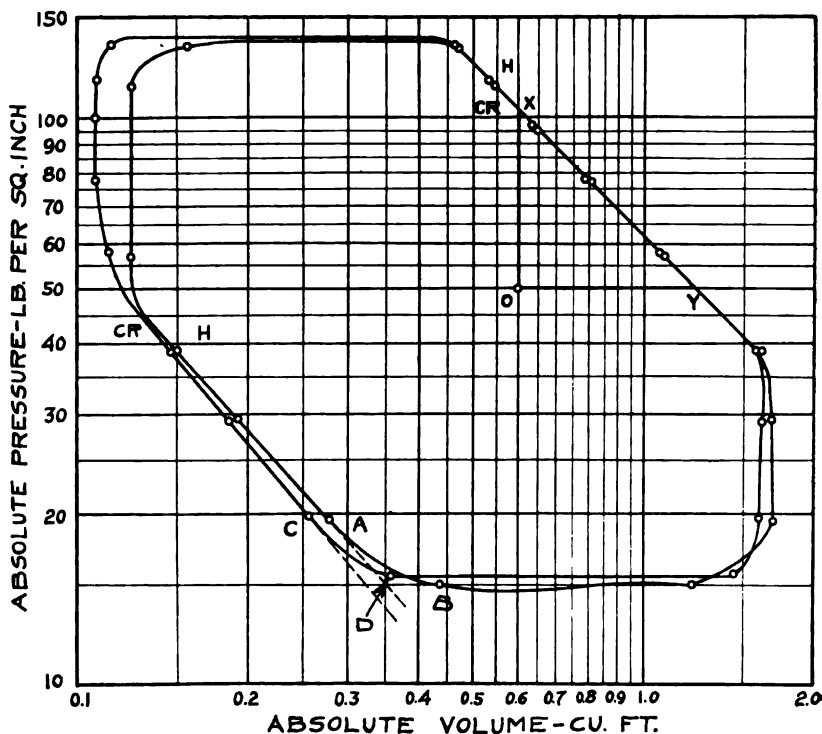
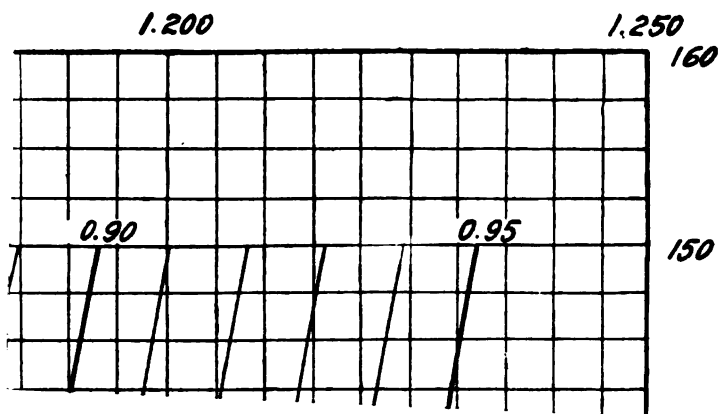


FIG. 9. LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAMS PLOTTED FROM FIG. 15

18. *The Form of Expansion and Compression Curves from Practice.*—About 300 PV diagrams from engines using steam, gas, air, and ammonia have been examined to investigate the form and character of the expansion and compression curves. As a result, it may be stated that, free from certain abnormal influences, expansion or compression of an elastic medium takes place in the cylinders of reciprocating engines substantially according to the law, $PV^n = C$.

19. *Mathematical Relations of the Law, $PV^n = C$.*—The equation of the polytropic curve, $PV^n = C$, when plotted on rectangular cross-section paper, gives a curve depending for its form and

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VI. RATIONAL METHOD OF APPROXIMATING CLEARANCE

21. In the cases of the great majority of the PV -diagrams which were examined, the expansion and compression curves became straight lines in the logarithmic diagram, showing that the law $PV^n = C$ was applicable, or in other words, that n was a constant for one curve. The clearances furnished with the diagrams examined had been carefully found by the displacement method.

It was desired to see what forms the lines assumed when the clearance was taken larger or smaller than the measured quantity. The diagram shown in Fig. 10a, taken from a 42 in. x 60 in. gas engine, was used for this purpose. The true clearance, measured as 18.0 per cent, was used in the full logarithmic diagram of Fig. 10b. Trials were made with clearances assumed as 14.0, 16.0, 20.0 and 22.0 per cent of the piston displacement. With the true clearance of 18.0 per cent, the curves became almost perfectly straight lines, while with the values of clearance less than 18.0 per cent, it is seen that the lines become bent to the left, and with values of over 18.0 per cent, the lines become bent to the right. Hence the straight line for the value of 18.0 per cent is the transition between the family of curves bending to the left, representing a clearance smaller than the real value, and the family of curves bending to the right, representing a clearance larger than the real value.

The practical significance of this fact is that there is now available a rational method of approximating the clearance of any cylinder using an elastic medium, which has, as a part of the cycle of operation, an expansion or a compression. This method is based on the fact, already mentioned, that, in practice, all elastic media, except under certain exceptional conditions, obey substantially the law $PV^n = C$, when subject to change of state, and therefore become straight lines in the logarithmic diagram.

22. *Graphical Method of Approximating Clearance.*—The graphical method of approximating clearance requires only the scale of the indicator spring to be known, and the atmospheric line to be drawn, in order to locate the zero line of pressure. The exact order of procedure necessary to make a trial, and the degree of accuracy obtained in any given case, is shown in detail in page 35 for a 25½ in. x 37½ in. gas engine. All that is necessary is to assume different values of clearance, and to plot the logarithmic diagram for each assumed value. The straight-line position of the curves is found by trial and error, to lie between the two di-

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions have been drawn from the results of this investigation, as applicable to non-jacketed steam cylinders in good condition exhausting at or near atmospheric pressure, and with the limitations imposed as given in Part I.

1. At a given initial pressure and speed of engine, there is a definite relation existing between x_c and n , in any one cylinder, which is practically independent of the cut-off position.

2. This relation is practically independent of cylinder size and of engine speed; it is therefore applicable to other cylinders of the same type.

3. By means of the experimentally determined relations of x_c and n , the value of x_c may be approximated from the average value of n obtained from the expansion curves of one set of indicator diagrams, taken simultaneously; therefore the actual weight of steam present in one revolution may be approximated.

4. The actual steam consumption may be obtained by this method from the indicator diagram to within an average of 4 per cent of the amount consumed as measured by test.

5. This method has the following advantages not possessed by tests: it is more accurate than the average test, and is the most accurate method available for testing certain classes of engines; it virtually measures an instantaneous rate instead of an average quantity over a long time, and thus enables a large number of points to be obtained for a water-rate curve; it permits of making tests at frequent intervals instead of once in the engine's life; the expense is not to be compared with that of an equally accurate test; it involves no change in the routine of the plant tested.

PART II. THE LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAM APPLIED TO ALL ELASTIC MEDIA

V. THE LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAM

17. *The Indicator Diagram Plotted on Logarithmic Cross-section Paper.*—The logarithmic diagram is obtained by transferring the indicator or PV -diagram to logarithmic cross-section paper. The method of transfer is as follows. The coordinates of the PV -diagram are proportional to pressure and stroke, the latter being proportional to the volume displaced by the piston. The coordinates of from 10 to 30 points on the PV -diagram are found in terms of

absolute pressures, preferably in lb. per sq. in., and of absolute volumes, preferably in cu. ft. These points are plotted on logarithmic cross section paper and are connected by a smooth curve, forming a figure which will be called the logarithmic diagram. Fig. 9 shows the logarithmic diagrams derived from the PV -diagrams of Fig. 15.

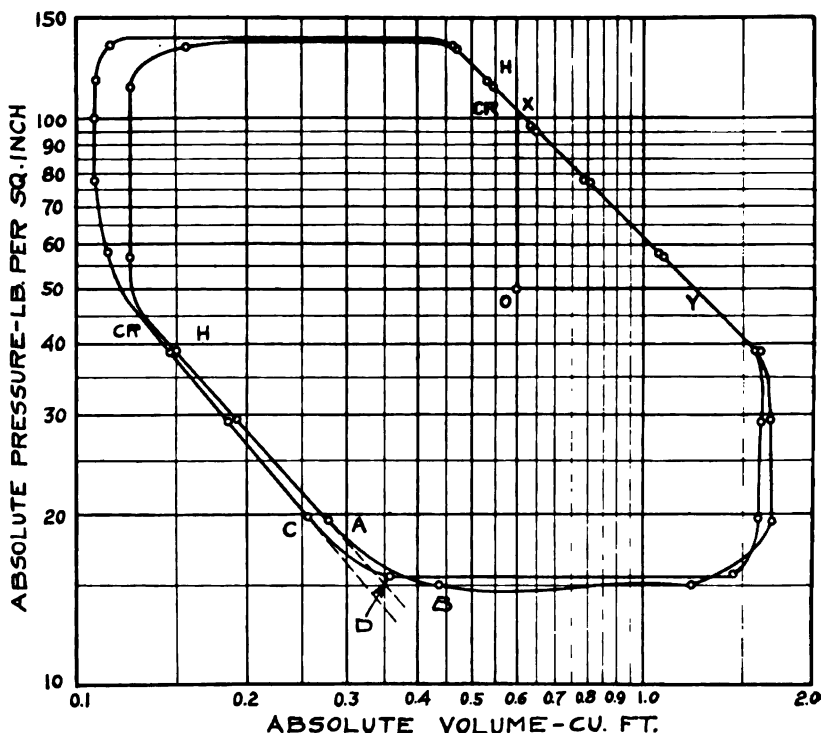


FIG. 9. LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAMS PLOTTED FROM FIG. 15

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19. *Mathematical Relations of the Law, $PV^n = C$.*—The equation of the polytropic curve, $PV^n = C$, when plotted on rectangular cross-section paper, gives a curve depending for its form and

position on the values of P , V , n , and C . When this curve is plotted on logarithmic paper, it becomes a straight line, depending for its slope on the value of n and for its position upon the value of C . The relations for such curves follow.

Given

$$PV^n = C$$

Taking the logarithm of both terms

$$\log P + n \log V = \log C$$

Transposing

$$\log P = -n \log V + \log C \dots \dots (1)$$

This equation is of the form of the straight line

$$y = mx + b$$

where

$$y = \log P$$

$$m = -n$$

$$x = \log V$$

$$b = \log C$$

Thus $m = -n$, the slope; or measure of inclination of the line to the axis, $\log V$. In Fig. 9, for example, at a point X on the line

$$\log P = -n \log V + \log C,$$

draw OX parallel to the axis $\log P$, and draw OY parallel to the axis $\log V$. The slope of the line will be the value of the ratio

$$\frac{OX}{OY} = -n. \quad OY \text{ is negative, being measured to the left, giving}$$

n its negative sign.

20. *Use of the Logarithmic Diagram.*—The logarithmic diagram forms the basis of the methods of analyzing the cylinder performance of reciprocating engines which are developed in detail in the following pages. These methods apply only, however, to the logarithmic diagrams derived from the cylinders of reciprocating engines using an elastic fluid for the working medium, and having, as a part of the cycle of operation, an expansion, a compression, or both. The figures of one set of indicator diagrams and the corresponding set of logarithmic diagrams are numbered the same, but the letters a and b are used in addition to the figure number to denote the indicator and logarithmic diagrams, respectively.

VI. RATIONAL METHOD OF APPROXIMATING CLEARANCE

21. In the cases of the great majority of the PV -diagrams which were examined, the expansion and compression curves became straight lines in the logarithmic diagram, showing that the law $PV^n = C$ was applicable, or in other words, that n was a constant for one curve. The clearances furnished with the diagrams examined had been carefully found by the displacement method.

It was desired to see what forms the lines assumed when the clearance was taken larger or smaller than the measured quantity. The diagram shown in Fig. 10a, taken from a 42 in. x 60 in. gas engine, was used for this purpose. The true clearance, measured as 18.0 per cent, was used in the full logarithmic diagram of Fig. 10b. Trials were made with clearances assumed as 14.0, 16.0, 20.0 and 22.0 per cent of the piston displacement. With the true clearance of 18.0 per cent, the curves became almost perfectly straight lines, while with the values of clearance less than 18.0 per cent, it is seen that the lines become bent to the left, and with values of over 18.0 per cent, the lines become bent to the right. Hence the straight line for the value of 18.0 per cent is the transition between the family of curves bending to the left, representing a clearance smaller than the real value, and the family of curves bending to the right, representing a clearance larger than the real value.

The practical significance of this fact is that there is now available a rational method of approximating the clearance of any cylinder using an elastic medium, which has, as a part of the cycle of operation, an expansion or a compression. This method is based on the fact, already mentioned, that, in practice, all elastic media, except under certain exceptional conditions, obey substantially the law $PV^n = C$, when subject to change of state, and therefore become straight lines in the logarithmic diagram.

22. *Graphical Method of Approximating Clearance.*—The graphical method of approximating clearance requires only the scale of the indicator spring to be known, and the atmospheric line to be drawn, in order to locate the zero line of pressure. The exact order of procedure necessary to make a trial, and the degree of accuracy obtained in any given case, is shown in detail in page 35 for a 25½ in. x 37½ in. gas engine. All that is necessary is to assume different values of clearance, and to plot the logarithmic diagram for each assumed value. The straight-line position of the curves is found by trial and error, to lie between the two di-

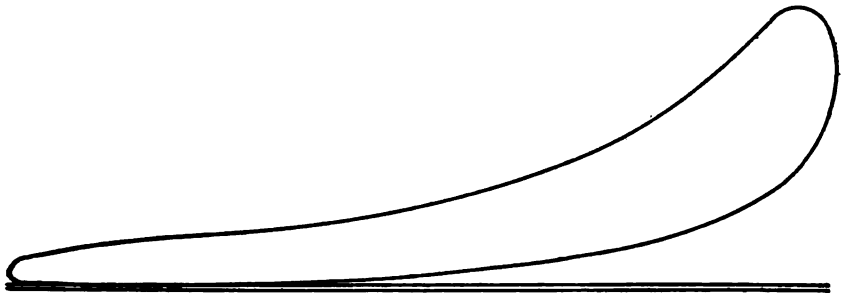


FIG. 10g (SCALE—160 LB.)

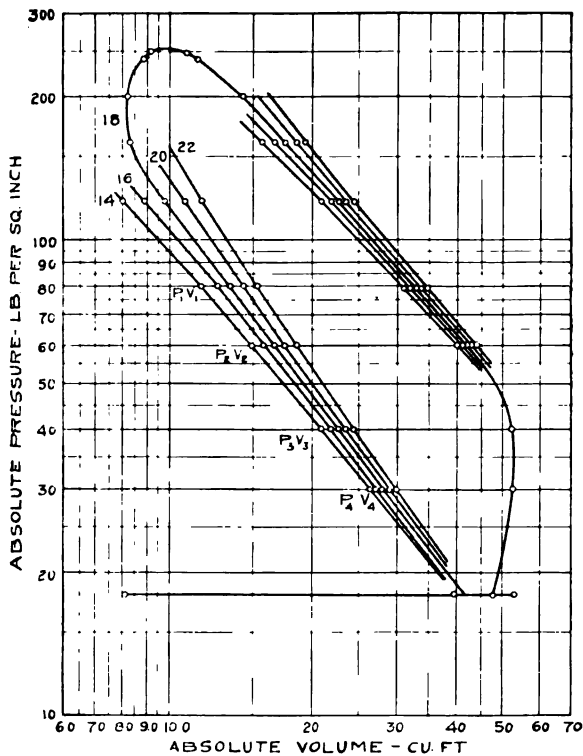


FIG. 10b. TOD 42-IN. X 60-IN. GAS ENGINE, BLAST FURNACE GAS

verging families of curves representing too small and too large clearance.

It follows also from the curves shown by Fig. 10b that the clearance being known, the scale of the spring used may be obtained in the same manner if the atmospheric line is given.

23. *Mathematical Method of Approximating Clearance.*—The results obtained from the graphical method of trial and error may also be accomplished by the use of the purely mathematical process upon which the method depends.

When the law $PV^n = C$ holds, n is a constant for any part of the curve. When the wrong clearance is used, the law $PV^n = C$ does not hold, and n varies from point to point. In the graphical method, trials of various values of clearance are made, until the curve becomes approximately a straight line; this resultant straight line is, therefore, the law $PV^n = C$, in which n is a constant for all parts of the curve. The one condition necessary to be fulfilled, therefore, is that n be constant for all parts of the curve, but not of any particular value.

24. *Application of the Mathematical Method.*—To illustrate the use of the mathematical method in Fig. 10b, let us assume several points, P_1V_1 , P_2V_2 , P_3V_3 , and P_4V_4 at various intervals on one of the curves, as on the compression curve at the clearance value 14.0 per cent. It is desirable for convenience to locate the points at about equal intervals as shown. The law $PV^n = C$ is assumed to hold. Then, for two points, P_1V_1 and P_2V_2 , called group *a*, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_1V_1^n &= C \\ P_2V_2^n &= C \end{aligned}$$

Equating these, we obtain

$$P_2V_2^n = P_1V_1^n$$

Transposing and dividing

$$\left(\frac{V_2}{V_1}\right)^n = \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

Taking logarithm of both sides

$$n(\log V_2 - \log V_1) = \log P_1 - \log P_2$$

whence

$$n_a = \frac{\log P_1 - \log P_2}{\log V_2 - \log V_1} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

In the same manner for the points P_3V_3 and P_4V_4 called group *b*, we obtain

$$n_b = \frac{\log P_3 - \log P_4}{\log V_4 - \log V_3} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

For the correct value of clearance, the following condition must be fulfilled by trial and error

$$n_a = n_b \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

The values of the logarithms of the coordinates of all points are then found, and the values of n_a and n_b computed. If the points are located in the order shown, then with too small a clearance, n_a is lower in value than n_b . A larger value of clearance is then assumed, the operation being merely to add a constant number to the values of V_1 , V_2 , V_3 , and V_4 . The process is repeated until the value of n_a becomes practically equal to n_b . When the clearance is assumed too large, n_a becomes higher in value than n_b , indicating that the true value has been passed.

25. *Comparison of the Two Methods.*—The trial by the mathematical method is neither as accurate nor as short as the graphical method. It is not as accurate because the points assumed may not be representative. When this is the case, the graphical method allows judgment to be exercised in selecting the straight-line position, thereby eliminating irregularity of points.

The question arises as to whether the form of the lines due to wrong clearance can be distinguished from the form due to leakage or to "hooks", on the logarithmic diagram. This case is treated in chapter IX.

The curve of the PV -diagram nearest the clearance space, or the compression curve in Fig. 10*b*, is generally the better guide in the graphical trials. This is well shown in Fig. 10*b*. A given difference in the values of clearance used for trial causes more horizontal variation in the position of the compression curve than in the expansion curve. This fact allows closer locations of the straight-line transition region to be made from the compression curve than from the expansion curve.

26. *Examples.*—It was desired to determine the clearance of the diagram shown in Fig. 11*a*. From general knowledge of this class of engines, a trial by the graphical method was made in Fig. 11*b* with the clearance assumed as 12.4 per cent, a value purposely assumed as being too small. This value is seen, by the bending of both curves to the left, to be much too small. Trials were, therefore, made with the clearance assumed as 13.8, 15.1, and 16.0 per cent of the piston displacement. The values of 15.1 per cent gave practically perfect straight lines for both the expansion and compression curves, while the value of 16.0 per cent shows that the lines have begun to bend to the right, indicating too large a clearance. By inspection, it will be seen that the re-

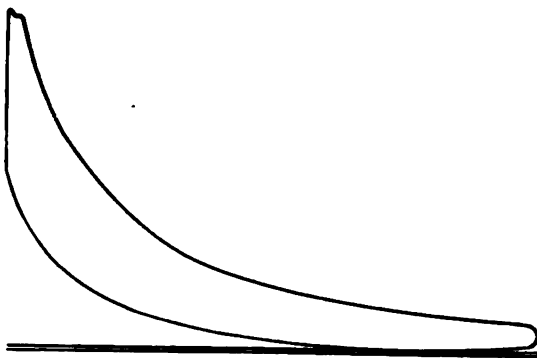


FIG. 117. (SCALE—180 LB.)

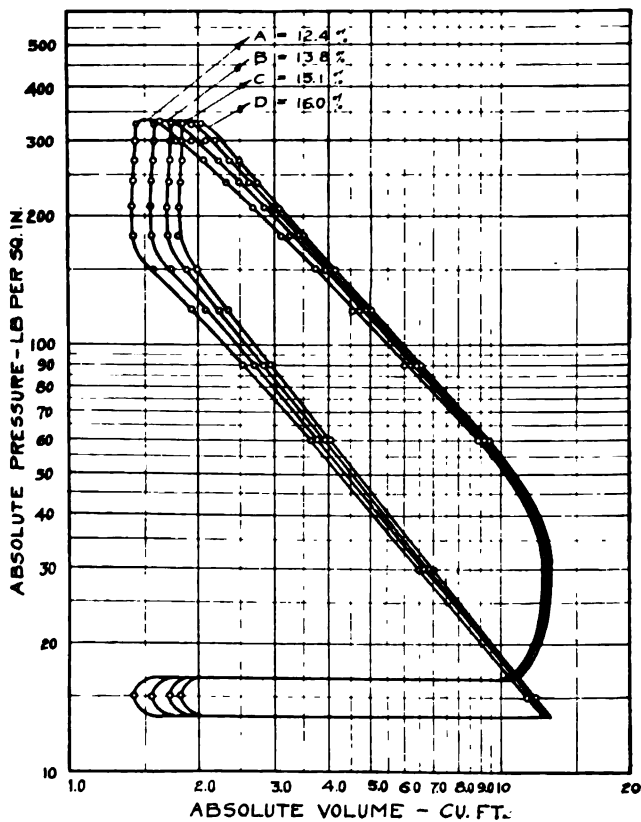


FIG. 118. KOERTING FOUR-CYCLE 25%-IN. X 37%-IN. PRODUCER GAS ENGINE

gion of fairly straight lines may be located as lying between the values of about 14.5 per cent to 15.5 per cent. The clearance is, therefore, selected as 15.0 per cent, a value which may be high or low by not more than 4 per cent in this case. This clearance value, 15.0 per cent, is a common value for engines of this class.

The graphical method is more accurate for large clearances, measured in per cent of the piston displacement, than for small ones. The closeness of location of the straight-line region, lying between the two families of diverging curves, will be found to be within 5 per cent to 10 per cent of the clearance volume, for values of clearance between 20 per cent and 2 per cent, respectively, of the piston displacement.

VII. RATIONAL METHOD OF LOCATING THE STROKE POSITION OF CYCLIC EVENTS

27. It is often desirable to know at what part of the stroke the cyclic events occur. This knowledge can be best obtained from the *PV*-diagram. For ordinary purposes, these events can be closely located in most cases by inspection on the *PV*-diagrams themselves; thus, on a diagram from a Corliss engine, cut-off may generally be located to within 1-16 in., measured along the length of the diagram.

The actual beginning of true compression, however, can never be accurately located on the *PV*-diagram. True compression, unaffected by leakage, begins after the exhaust valve, in closing, has acquired enough seal to prevent leakage. The point of the beginning of true compression is generally at least 5 lb. above the back pressure. The point at which leakage ceases cannot be located on the *PV*-diagram because the curve of true compression, and the curve during the time the valve has insufficient seal, are of the same direction of curvature, and are not reverse curves as in the general case of admission and expansion.

The fact that expansion and compression of a constant weight of medium take place according to the law, $PV^n = C$, thus becoming straight lines in the logarithmic diagram, enables us to locate cyclic events very closely, even in cases where they cannot be detected at all in the *PV*-diagram.

28. *Application.*—An example is shown in Fig. 23a, containing locomotive *PV*-diagrams taken at short cut-off and high speed. The events of cut-off, release, compression, and lead are very difficult to locate on such diagrams. These events

are located on the logarithmic diagram in Fig. 23b by noting when the expansion and compression curves become straight, indicating a constant weight of steam mixture.

A sufficient number of points are plotted to show clearly the direction of the diagram near the events desired. Thus these events, even though obscure in the PV -diagram, may be located to well within about 1-16 in. in the logarithmic diagram, this length being equivalent to about 1-82 in. when re-transferred to the PV -diagram itself.

The use of this method has one great advantage in that it largely eliminates the variable element of personal judgment. It is a common occurrence to see PV -diagrams where two persons have located an event such as cut-off, $\frac{1}{8}$ in. apart, each location being the best judgment of the person doing the work. The logarithmic diagram will at all times give closer locations of events for these reasons than will the PV -diagrams.

The method also allows the point of true compression to be located, the location of which is practically impossible in the PV -diagram.

VIII. RATIONAL METHOD OF DETECTING LEAKAGE

The law $PV^n = C$ is applicable only to cases where the weight of the working medium remains practically constant during any expansion or compression. When this weight changes materially, either by leakage into, or out from, the cylinder containing the medium, the resulting expansion or compression no longer obeys the law, and it becomes a curve on logarithmic cross-section paper. This fact is very clearly shown in the curves of the logarithmic diagram derived from cylinders in which large leaks were known to exist.

29. *Examples of Known Leakage. (a) Gas Engine.*—The first case, shown in Fig. 12b, occurred in a 10 in. x 19 in. gas engine, intended for producer gas, but using illuminating gas at high compression. The piston, a single-acting trunk type, allowed a large leak, clearly detected by the noise of escaping gas, at the beginning of the stroke. Both the compression and expansion curves show the effect of this leak in a clear manner when transferred to the logarithmic form. After that portion of the stroke was reached where no sound of leakage was heard, the two curves became straight lines. This indicated very clearly that the effect of leakage, if appreciable, may be detected in the

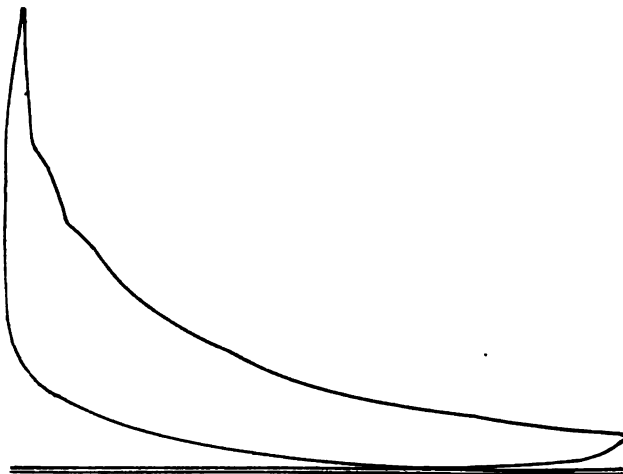


FIG. 12a. (SCALE—190 LB.)

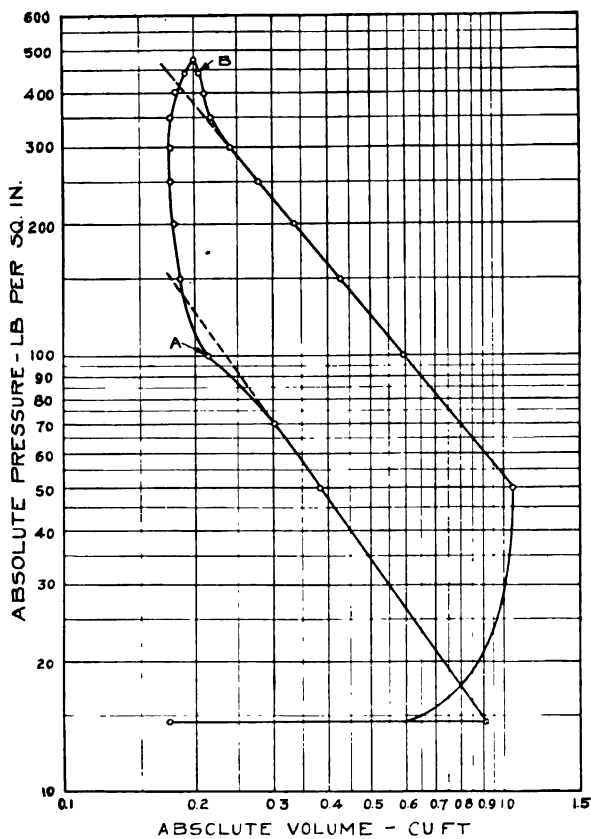


FIG. 12b. 10-IN. X 19-IN. GAS ENGINE (ILLUMINATING GAS)

form of the curves of the logarithmic diagram.

(b) *Steam Engine*.—The second case, shown in Fig. 13b, is from a 14 in. x 35-in. Corliss engine. The knowledge of the leaky condition of the piston and valves came from the engineer in charge.

The expansion and compression lines indicate by their form at the upper ends, a large leak from the cylinder, or through the exhaust valve. The lines also show, by the rising of the curves at the lower ends, a considerable addition to the steam in the cylinder during expansion and compression. This steam could come only from a large leak in the steam valve. The seven other diagrams taken from this same engine all show the effect of leakage in a similar manner.

(c) *Ammonia Compressor*.—The third case of known leakage, shown in Fig. 14b, is from an 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ in. x 22-in. double-acting ammonia compressor. This cylinder was known to be in very bad condition as regards wear and leakage of piston and valves. The re-expansion curves, by the enormous amount of re-expansion shown, indicate large leakage into the cylinder during this operation. The lower part of the compression curves, by rising, indicates leakage into the cylinder, either past the piston or through the discharge valves. The upper part of these curves indicates leakage from the cylinder, either past the piston or through the suction valves. These three examples show abnormal conditions which are comparatively rare.

Very smooth curves may be obtained in the *PV*-diagram even if there is large leakage taking place. This is seen by referring to Fig. 13a, both the expansion and compression curves being fairly regular. The logarithmic diagram, however, shows clearly, in connection with the discussion and the examples shown, that large leakage of two kinds was taking place during expansion and compression. Leakage which occurs during admission or during exhaust has no effect upon the lines of the diagram as the weight of the medium is continually changing.

30. *Method of Detecting Leakage*.—It is seldom found, when leakage occurs in a cylinder, that only one source of leakage exists. Leakage is usually the result of wear, which affects most of the possible sources of leakage in about an equal proportion. As a result, several leaks are generally affecting the curves. This is the case in Fig. 13b and 14b. In Fig. 13b, leakage was taking place both into and out from the cylinder.

In discussing leakage, it must be kept in mind that difference

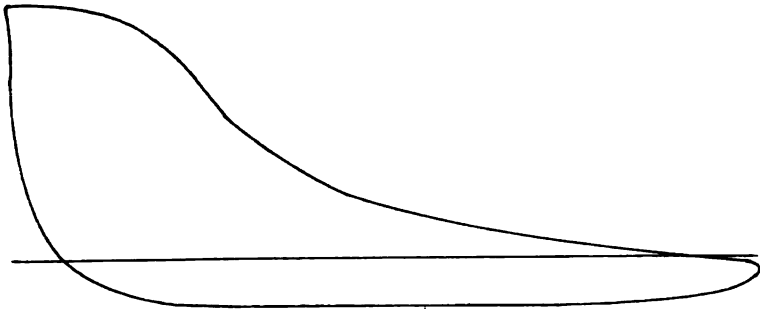


FIG. 13a. (SCALE—40 LB.)

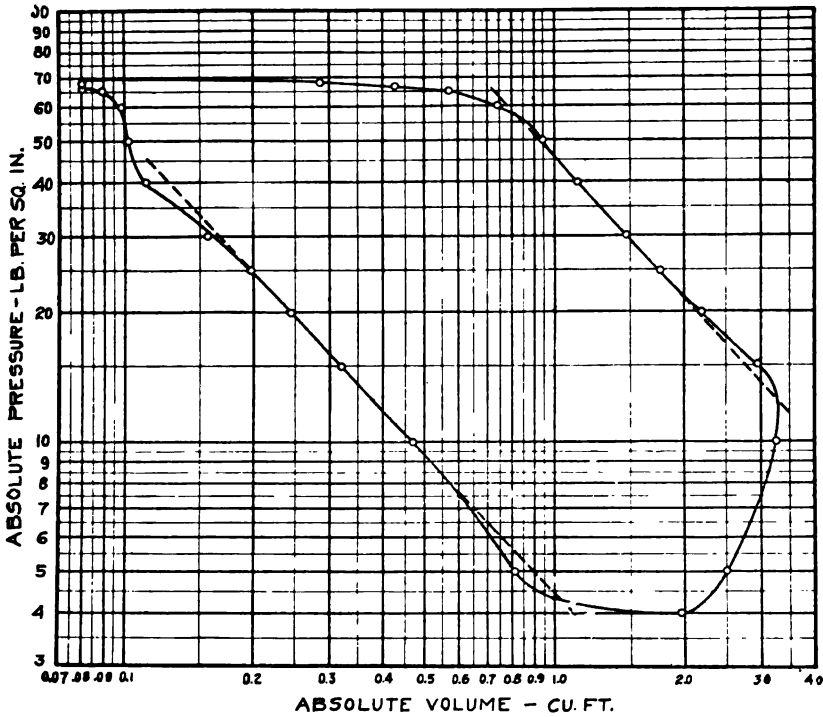


FIG. 13b. 14-IN. X 35-IN. CORLISS ENGINE

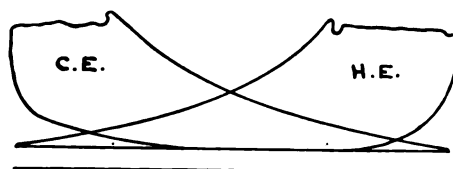


FIG. 14a. (SCALE-168 LB.)

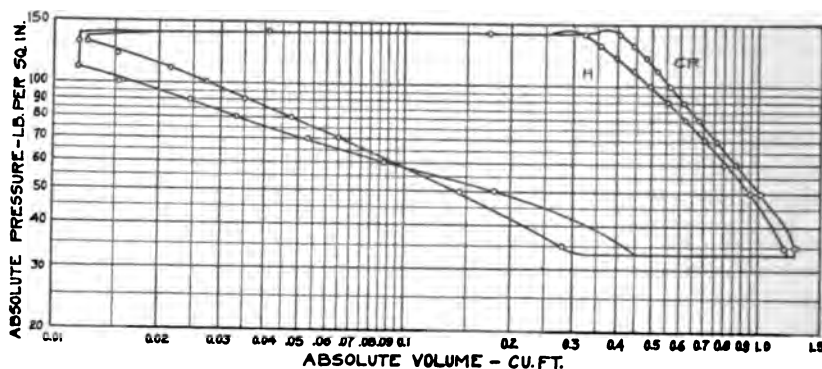


FIG. 14b. 14 1/2-IN. X 2-IN. AMMONIA COMPRESSOR

in pressure between two regions is the cause of this phenomenon. In the steam engine, there are three pressures which must be considered, i. e., the pressure in the steam chest, in the cylinder at the point discussed, and in the exhaust passage. Leakage, being due to difference of pressure, becomes material only when this difference becomes considerable. Thus leakage into, or out from a steam cylinder has been found to occur, in most cases, only when the pressure difference is over about 20 lb. In Fig. 13b, the leakage into the cylinder, shown by the lower parts of the lines, begins to occur at about 25 lb. absolute, or 35 lb. lower than the pressure at admission. The leakage out from the cylinder, shown by the upper parts of the lines, ceases to occur at a pressure of about 40 lb. absolute for the expansion curve, and begins to occur at about 25 lb. absolute for the compression curve. The difference of pressure between the steam in the cylinder and that in the exhaust passage is about 35 lb. in the first case, and about 20 lb. in the second case.

31. *Division of the Lines of Expansion and Compression.*—This fact, found on many diagrams analyzed, enables us to divide

the expansion and compression lines roughly into three equal parts on the logarithmic diagram (when these lines extend from the initial pressure to nearly the back pressure): (1) the upper third, influenced by leaks *out from* the cylinder; (2) the middle third, practically *uninfluenced* by leakage; (3) the lower third, influenced by leakage *into* the cylinder. Thus fairly reliable values of n , free from the effect of leakage, may be obtained from the middle third of the lines,

Returning to Fig. 13b, both the lines indicate leaks out from the cylinder. This can occur either past the piston or through the exhaust valves. The piston generally becomes leaky sooner than Corliss exhaust valves, and, in this particular engine, one of the piston rings was found to be broken upon examination. When diagrams from both ends of the cylinder are available, piston leakage causes nearly an equal effect on the expansion-curves of both ends. The leakage into the cylinder can come from only one source which can influence the curves, i. e., the steam chest. The effect of this leak is seen in both lines in the lower thirds.

In Fig. 14b, both forms of leakage are shown in the ammonia compression curves. The lower thirds show leakage into the cylinder, either through the discharge valves or past the piston. The upper thirds of the lines show large leakage from the cylinder, caused by the condition of either the suction valves or the piston. Ordinarily, it is not possible to distinguish between two leaks occurring in the same third of the curves.

32. *Approximation of the Volume That Leaked.*—Fig. 12b is an example where only one kind of leakage is present. Here, the piston alone leaked badly at the commencement of the stroke. The effect of this leak is seen in the upper third of both lines.

When only one kind of leakage exists, it is possible to compute with fair accuracy the volume of leakage taking place during expansion or compression. The lines are extended, as shown in Fig. 12b, giving the lines of constant weights of the medium. The volume of gas that had leaked during compression, up to 100 lb. absolute pressure, is then seen to be 0.014 cu. ft., or 6.3 per cent of the volume remaining. The volume of gas, measured at the pressure of 450 lb. absolute, that leaked after combustion during expansion, is seen to be 0.032 cu. ft., or 18.7 per cent of the volume remaining after the leakage stopped.

The leakage that took place during combustion at the end of

the stroke cannot be computed, but it can be estimated by making the assumption that this leakage was proportional to the mean rate of leakage shown by the two curves, and that its duration was the time interval occurring between the point *A* and the point *B*.

The important result that is attained by this method is not, however, the approximation of leakage, but the knowledge that it is taking place, so that it can be located and stopped.

33. *The Use of the Method in Testing for Maximum Economy.*—Many engines are sold and their prices fixed on the basis of their test performances. The importance to the manufacturer of being able to eliminate leaks during this test does not have to be emphasized. The engineer in charge of the test should know whether or not the engine is tight under regular operating conditions. All of our present knowledge of leakage is an inference drawn from the leakage "standing". Nobody knows whether an engine that is tight "standing" leaks when in operation, or vice-versa. This method should be applied to all engines about to undergo any test where maximum economy is the object desired.

34. *Knowledge as to When General Repairs of the Cylinder and Valves Are Necessary.*—Leaks are caused by wear, poor design, and accidents. The accidents include scoring of cylinders and valves, cutting of valves, and cracks in the cylinder. Most leakage is the result of wear and tear due to long and hard use. After the wear and tear has become marked, it is the custom to rebore the cylinder and to resurface the valves and valve seats.

Several methods are in use for determining when general repairs are necessary for steam cylinders. One of these methods is to judge the time from the general appearance of the parts on inspection. Cylinders are rebored by some engineers when they have worn "out of round" by a given amount. In small plants, the most general method seems to be to wait until the leakage is so large as to become clearly noticeable either by the reduced capacity of the unit, or by the effect upon the coal pile. Some railroad companies overhaul the cylinders and valves of locomotive cylinders at regular intervals of, for instance, 150 000 miles of travel. Some cylinders in stationary plants are rebored at equal time intervals of some four or five years each.

As a pure question of economy, other things not considered, general repairs of cylinder and valves should take place when the extra annual cost of fuel and water due to leakage equals the

annual interest on the money necessary for general repairs. The total cost of general repairs is composed of several items: the actual cost of the repairs, the cost of losing the unit from service, the interest on the cost of the extra capacity that may have to be installed to take the load when units are out of service, and the interest on the money invested in the unit out of service.

The existing methods of determining when general repairs are necessary are not standardized as regards economy, and the personal judgment of the man making the decision may be liable to great variation. The method of detecting leakage from the logarithmic diagram offers a more rational solution of this important question.

35. *Leakage of Engines.*—The results of an analysis made in connection with this investigation by means of logarithmic diagrams of 296 *PV*-diagrams taken from the cylinders of 47 engines indicate that the majority of engines, in good condition, are practically tight as regards leakage into or out from the cylinder.

IX. INTERPRETATION OF THE LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAM

In the discussions upon the effect of wrong clearance, leakage, and excessive condensation upon the lines of the logarithmic diagram, it was assumed, for the sake of clearness, that only one of these effects existed at one time. The examples were selected so as to illustrate only one of these effects in each case.

Cases occur where several of these effects exist at one time in the same diagram. The separation of one effect from another is not an exact process. However, the character of the curves showing excessive condensation, wrong clearance, and leakage is quite different. For instance, wrong clearance affects the lines throughout their length. Excessive condensation, in the cases of the steam diagrams examined, always affects only the upper parts of the curves. Leakage, as has been mentioned, affects materially only the upper and lower thirds of the lines, where these lines extend from the initial pressure to nearly the back pressure. When excessive condensation and large leakage exist together, no close approximation of the clearance can be made.

An adequate treatment of the segregation of these various effects, when found together, is beyond the scope of this bulletin. The treatment is long and complicated. It has been found, however, that experience in the use of logarithmic diagrams enables one to separate these effects qualitatively, in some cases, from the form of the expansion and compression curves.

The logarithmic diagram is more useful for analysis than any other form of diagram because of the natural limitations of the human mind. We do not possess the power to distinguish between curves. We are, however, able to see clearly the difference in these curves after they have been transformed into straight lines, which fact alone makes these new methods of analysis possible. We are now enabled in their straight-line form, to comprehend curves which we have always seen, but could not distinguish one from another in their original form.

X. COMMON ERRORS MADE IN ANALYZING STEAM INDICATOR DIAGRAMS

36. *The Use of the Equilateral Hyperbola as a Standard of Comparison.*—The values of n for the expansion curves of steam indicator diagrams are not closely constant but are subject to a very wide range of variation. The range of variation found in the present investigation is from 0.70 to 1.34.

The range of values in the engine tested was from 0.835 to 1.234. The average values were 0.947 for the tests run with saturated steam, 1.056 for the tests run with superheated steam, and 1.004 for all tests.

The values of n for most engines of ordinary size using saturated steam at normal cut-off is between 0.95 and 1.05, while for superheated steam, the range is usually from 1.00 to 1.30. For saturated steam, the value of $n = 1.0$ is about an average value.

The explanation of the value $n = 1.0$ can be seen from the results of the tests given on pp. 11 and 20. The only meaning that the average value of $n = 1$ ever possessed is that the average value of x_c , in the class of engines examined, lies in the range between 0.60 and 0.70.

The law of Boyle or Mariotte, or the law of isothermal expansion of a perfect gas, has no bearing of any kind whatsoever on the expansion of steam in a cylinder. The equilateral hyperbola sometimes occurring in steam cylinders is only a special case of expansion according to the polytropic law $PV^n = C$, while Boyle's law is another special case which never occurs in steam engine practice.

Because of the agreement in form between Boyle's law and the equilateral hyperbola (the special case of the law, $PV^n = C$, where $n = 1.0$), this latter curve has been called the ideal or theoretical curve of expansion to which curves in practice are

supposed to approach as a measure of practical perfection in the use of steam. The equilateral hyperbola is in no sense whatsoever an ideal or theoretical curve, and its use for the purposes of comparison is an empirical or arbitrary convention only. It should be called the conventional expansion. It has ever been contended that because an expansion curve did not coincide with the equilateral hyperbola, some grave fault exists in the engine. A value of n may be as low as 0.60 with no graver fault than very excessive initial condensation, while a value of 1.35 may be found from no graver fault than that of using steam superheated about 250° F.

The only rational use of applying the equilateral hyperbola to steam PV -diagrams is to act as a guide to see whether n is greater or less than 1.0. If the actual curve is not close to this hyperbola, if no faults exist, and if the cylinder is nonjacketed, then this fact means that the value of x_c for the case examined is less than about 0.60 or greater than about 0.70. The assumption that $n = 1.0$ as a standard of expansion is equivalent to assuming that the value of x_c is standard at about 0.65; however, no engineer would seriously propose that the value of x_c of 0.65 should be selected as a standard of economy. The elaborate theory of analysis built on the assumption that $n = 1.0$ is the natural result of the use of averages in any art where the actual facts have never been investigated.

The use of the equilateral hyperbola to predict the form of PV -diagrams for the purposes of design is satisfactory in the case of ordinary sizes of engines using saturated steam. When steam superheated over 100° F. is used, the value of n should be assumed at between 1.10 and 1.25. The high values of n obtained with highly superheated steam in large engines alter materially the division of work and the tangential forces acting from those obtained when n is assumed to be 1.0. This fact should be considered in the design of engines to use superheated steam.

The use of the equilateral hyperbola to obtain the ratio known as the "diagram factor" has no rational basis, but its use for this purpose gives results which are valuable for the purpose of design.

37 *The Graphical Method of Approximating the Clearance.* If n has the value 1.0 on a PV -diagram, the clearance may be found by locating the zero of volume on the zero line of pressure. This process is performed graphically by reversing the method used

in constructing the equilateral hyperbola.

In actual expansions, however, n is almost never exactly equal to 1.0, but is greater or less as already explained. The accuracy of the result by this method is dependent on how close the value of n approximated 1.0. The clearance obtained by this method may be as much as 100 per cent larger or smaller than the actual clearance volume in ordinary cases, while errors of 25 per cent and 50 per cent are very common. Where errors of this size are possible, the method is of no use for important work.

A rational method of approximating the clearance cannot be based upon the assumption that $n = 1.0$, but only upon the fact that it be of a constant value, the value itself being immaterial.

38. *Combined Steam Indicator Diagrams.*—Very little of value is obtained from the combined PV -diagrams of steam engines, except the measure of the diagram factor for the purpose of design.

One of the uses that has been made of the combined diagram is to see whether continuity of expansion exists. It has been assumed by various writers that continuity of expansion should exist.

A study of the relations of x_c and n shows that continuity of expansion does not and should not exist except under very special conditions.

39. *Division of Feed for Applying Hirn's Analysis.*—One of the requirements of Hirn's analysis is that we know exactly how much steam was admitted to each end of a cylinder. These amounts are not usually equal in practice, so an assumption must be made to cover the needs of the case.

The usual assumption is to divide the feed between each end of a cylinder in the ratio of the values of the mean effective pressure shown by the PV -diagrams from the two ends. This assumption is probably not far from the actual division in most cases, and is the best that can be done under the circumstances.

In the light of the facts presented in this investigation, this feed may now be divided on a more rational basis. It has been found that the presence of the piston rod in only one end of the cylinder has no appreciable effect upon the value of n . This fact enables us to divide the feed according to the volumes filled and the values of x_c as determined by the resulting values of n . This method is believed to be the closest solution obtainable in the case where the supply for each end of the cylinder cannot be separately measured.

40. *Computing the Weight of Steam Retained in Compression.*—A carefully made investigation indicates,¹ when saturated steam is used, that the steam in the cylinder is dry or even very slightly superheated at the closure of the exhaust valve. As shown by the logarithmic diagrams, leakage of the steam in compression continues until the exhaust valve, in closing, has acquired considerable seal.

The point which is selected to compute the volume of steam retained in compression generally lies between the points *A* to *B*, and *C* to *D* of Fig. 9. As the weight of steam retained is yet decreasing, the point selected nearly always accounts for more steam than was actually retained. In other words, we do not find the value of x_c to be as high as it actually is.

The following method shown in Fig. 9 has been adopted in the present investigation. The straight line of the compression curve on the logarithmic diagram, or the line of constant weight of steam mixture, is prolonged dotted as shown to the back pressure. The intersection of this prolonged line with the back pressure line extended is taken as the volume of dry steam retained in compression.

This method almost always gives less steam retained in compression than the ordinary method, and is believed to be rational in the present state of knowledge of this subject.

XI. CONCLUSIONS

1. The indicator diagram, taken by means of a correct reducing motion and with a reliable indicator, contains the evidence necessary for a complete and useful analysis of cylinder performance.

2. The logarithmic diagram, derived from the indicator diagram, discloses a new and complete analysis of cylinder performance.

3. Free from the influences of leakage, wrong clearance, wrong location of the line of zero pressure, and excessively low speed (principally in steam engines), expansion or compression of an elastic medium takes place substantially according to the law, $PV^n = C$.

4. The clearance of cylinders may be found by graphical trial on logarithmic cross-section paper to within 5 per cent to 10 per cent of the clearance volume, depending as the clearance it-

¹ George Duchesne, *Revue de Mécanique*. July, 1899, quoted in *Power*, (Jan. 10, 1911. P. 71).

self varies from 20 per cent to 2 per cent, respectively, of the piston displacement.

5. The cyclic events, even though entirely obscure in the indicator diagram, may be located on the logarithmic diagram (when plotted on logarithmic paper of 5 in. per square) to within $\frac{1}{16}$ in., this quantity being the equivalent of about $\frac{1}{16}$ in. when re-transferred to the indicator-diagram.

6. Leakage (if appreciable) may be reliably detected from the logarithmic diagram, and may, in some cases, be approximated in volume.

7. The weight of steam retained in compression should be obtained from the logarithmic diagram by prolonging the line of constant weight of steam mixture to the back pressure line extended; the intersection of these two extended lines is the volume of steam which is retained.

APPENDIX 1

THE LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAM

APPENDIX 1

METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING THE LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAM

1. *Description of Logarithmic Cross-section Paper.*—Logarithmic cross-section paper differs from rectangular cross-section paper in that the distances from the origin are proportional to the logarithms of the numbers to be plotted instead of to the numbers themselves. This system of coordinates gives an uneven scale similar to that on a slide rule. The numbers of the divisions on logarithmic paper are placed opposite the lines corresponding to their logarithms, as on a slide rule, instead of to the values of the logarithms of the numbers. This fact aids in plotting, as the logarithms are employed without having to ascertain their values.

The logarithmic cross section paper used in this investigation consists of four squares arranged two each way. These squares are five inches each way, making the four squares together ten inches each way. The use of four squares enables values to be plotted ranging from 0.1 to 10.0, 1.0 to 100.0, etc., thus giving a range of ten times the values obtainable if only one square were used.

2. *Construction of the Logarithmic Diagram.*—The coordinates of the *PV*-diagram are proportional to pressure and stroke, the latter being proportional to the volume displaced by the piston. The coordinates of several points on the *PV*-diagram are found in terms of absolute pressures, preferably in pounds per square inch, and absolute volumes, preferably in cubic feet. The scale of units employed is not material as long as it starts at the line of zero pressure, or of zero volume. However, the units are more easily manipulated afterwards if they are the same as those in the steam tables.

The method of transferring the *PV*-diagram to the logarithmic form is described in detail for the diagrams of test 30, given in Fig. 15. The method of drawing the pressure ordinates is shown on Fig. 15, crank end. The diagram is shown in outline by *AB YX*. Perpendiculars *QR* and *EX* are drawn to the atmospheric line *EQ*, and pass through the extreme stroke positions of the diagram. The distance *EQ* is then the length of the diagram. *OM* is laid off perpendicular to the atmospheric line *EQ* (extended) which was drawn by the indicator pencil. *OM* is the line of zero volume, and is drawn at a distance *FE* from the admission end *EX* of the di-

agram, the distance FE being the same length in per cent of the line EQ , or length of the diagram, as the proportion that the per cent of clearance, or waste space, of the cylinder bears to the piston displacement. In this case, the length of the diagram is 3.99 in., and the clearance is 7.04 per cent. The length FE is therefore 0.0704×3.99 , or 0.281 in. ON is the line of zero pressure and is drawn a distance FO below the atmospheric line, to the scale of the spring used in obtaining the PV -diagram. This distance is proportional to the barometer reading, corrected for temperature, prevailing at the day and place of the engine test. In this case, the

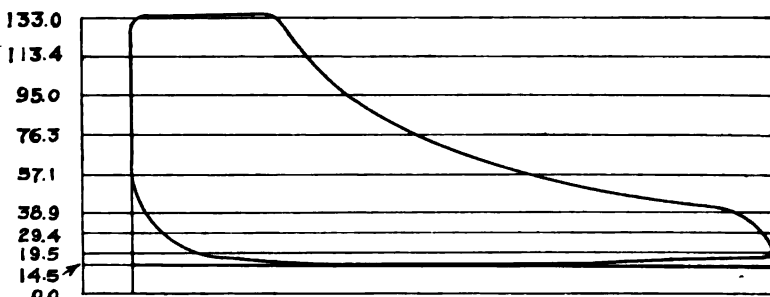


FIG. 15. HEAD END (SCALE 77.0 LB.)

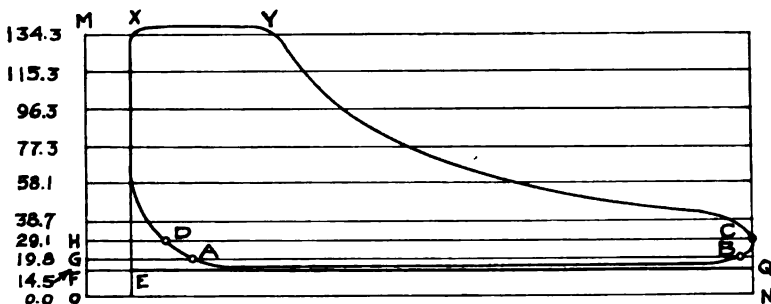


FIG. 15. CRANK END (SCALE 79.0 LB.)

corrected barometer reading is 14.2 lb. per sq. in. absolute, hence, the distance FO is $\frac{14.2}{79.0}$, or 0.180 in.

From ON , points are laid off on QR and EX corresponding to the absolute pressures at the intervals where it is desired to read off the corresponding volumes. Fine lines are drawn connecting similar pressure points, as 19.8–19.8, 29.1–29.1, etc. The volumes $G-A$, $G-B$, $H-D$, $H-C$, etc., are read off in hundredths of an inch to the nearest half-hundredth. The tabular form used in this investigation is given in Table 6 for the diagrams of Fig. 15 taken

in test 30. Thus the length $G-A$ is read off as 0.66 in., and is given under the column for 19.8 lb. pressure headed Comp., meaning the compression curve, for the crank end diagram. The volumes in inches are then multiplied by the constant ratio which one inch of length of the diagram bears to the displacement of the piston. From Table 6, it is seen that the piston displacement of the crank end is 1.523 cu. ft., and the length of diagram 3.99 in.; hence, the ratio is $\frac{1.523}{3.99}$, or 0.382 cu. ft. of piston displacement

per inch of diagram length. The length $G-A$ in cu. ft. of displacement now becomes 0.66 in. \times 0.382 cu. ft. per in., or 0.252 cu. ft., the volume of steam present at this point. This process is repeated at intervals until the coordinates of from ten to thirty points are determined. In the diagram shown in Fig. 15, the coordinates of 18 points were found in each diagram.

The coordinates of P and V are then plotted, on logarithmic cross-section paper, as shown in Fig. 9, which are the logarithmic diagrams derived from the PV -diagrams of Fig. 15. The points plotted in Fig. 15 are taken from the columns headed cu. ft. at the pressures shown. A smooth curve is drawn through the points thus plotted, and the diagram is in shape to be studied.

TABLE 6
CONSTRUCTION OF THE LOGARITHMIC DIAGRAMS OF TEST 30¹

Head End						Crank End				
No.	Absolute Pressures lb. per sq. in.	Volumes				Absolute Pressures lb. per sq. in.	Volumes			
		Inches		cu. ft.			Inches		cu. ft.	
		Comp. X to A	Exp. t to B	Comp.	Exp.		Comp.	Exp.	Comp.	Exp.
1	133.0	0.39	1.18	0.156	0.470	131.3	0.30	1.206	0.115	0.4605
2	113.4	0.31	1.36	0.124	0.5425	115.3	0.28	1.39	0.107	0.531
3	95.0	0.31	1.625	0.124	0.649	96.3	0.28	1.65	0.107	0.6305
4	76.3	0.31	2.02	0.124	0.8055	77.3	0.28	2.06	0.107	0.7875
5	57.1	0.31	2.705	0.124	1.080	58.1	0.295	2.76	0.113	1.065
6	38.9	0.375	4.03	0.150	1.610	38.7	0.385	4.12	0.147	1.572
7	29.4	0.48	4.22	0.192	1.685	29.1	0.485	4.26	0.185	1.686
8	19.5	0.70	4.26	0.279	1.699	19.8	0.66	4.30	0.252	1.690
9	15.0	1.10	3.06	0.439	1.220	15.0	0.93	3.77	0.355	1.440
Length of indicator diagram.....							H. E. 3.95 in.		CR. E. 3.99 in.	
Ratio of clearance to piston displacement, same end.....							0.0789		0.0704	
Length on diagram proportional to clearance ratio.....							0.312 in.		0.281 in.	
Length of diagram plus clearance.....							4.26 in.		4.27 in.	
Piston displacement (cylinder 12.02" \times 24").....							1.575 cu. ft.		1.523 cu. ft.	
Clearance volume.....							0.124 cu. ft.		0.107 cu. ft.	
Displacement plus clearance, total volume.....							1.699 cu. ft.		1.630 cu. ft.	
Ratio, cu. ft. per inch of length on diagram.....							0.399 cu. ft.		0.382 cu. ft.	
Scale of indicator spring per inch of ordinate.....							77.0 lb.		79.0 lb.	
¹ Letters refer to Fig. 15, crank end.....										
² Final results given in Table 1.....										

APPLICATION OF THE LAW $PV^n = C$ TO CURVES
FROM PRACTICE

3. *Does the Law $PV^n = C$ Hold for Curves from Practice?* It has long been known that adiabatic expansion or compression of any elastic medium takes place substantially according to the law $PV^n = C$. The values of n are different for different media, and sometimes vary for the same medium with different conditions of the initial state. These values, for media commonly used in reciprocating engines, are given on page 38 et seq.

In practice, however, expansion is never adiabatic, but is changed in character by the presence of the metal surrounding the working medium, and by imperfection of mechanism. Since the actual change of state is not adiabatic, the question arises how it has been changed in character, and whether this modified expansion still obeys the law $PV^n = C$.

Many investigators, Zeuner,¹ Leloutre,² Luders,³ and Perry⁴, have examined the curves from actual diagrams to clear up this point for steam. They find that expansion in steam cylinders takes place substantially according to the law $PV^n = C$, but that n varies in value between wide limits in different cases.

An examination was made of the curves of 296 diagrams from the cylinders of 47 different engines using steam, gas, air and ammonia to investigate this point. As a result, it may be stated that, in the cases of the great majority of engines using elastic media, expansion and compression take place substantially according to the law $PV^n = C$. Certain exceptions, however, have been found, and the causes studied. These causes are treated in the next section.

4. *Examples of Logarithmic Diagrams from Various Types of Engines.*—The logarithmic diagrams, obtained by plotting the indicator diagrams as described on p. 52, are of a distinctly different form from either the PV -diagrams or the temperature-entropy diagram. While the various typical forms of PV -diagrams assume rather different forms after plotting, yet the resultant figures retain in a general way the peculiar characteristics of each PV -type, except that these peculiarities are exaggerated.

Various typical PV -diagrams are given in Fig. 16-29. They include examples from many types of engines, using steam,

¹ Technical Thermodynamics II, p. 111.

² Recherches experimentals, Bulletin de la Societe Industrielle du Nord de la France, 1874.

³ Zur Theorie des Indikator diagrammes, Zivilingenieur, 1881, Vol. XXVII, p. 225.

⁴ The Steam Engine, p. 106.

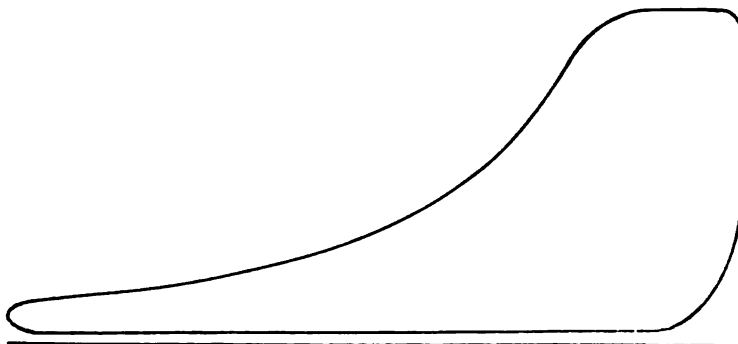


FIG. 164. CRANK END (SCALE—50 LB.)

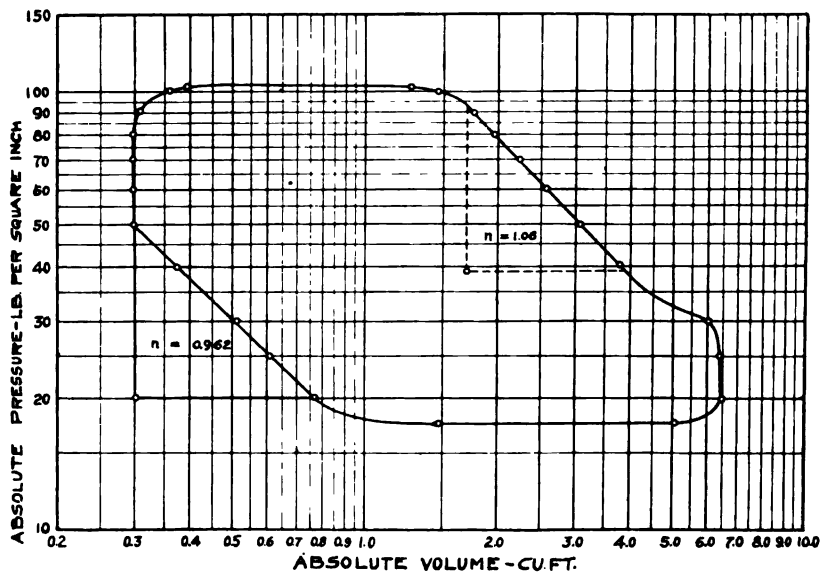


FIG. 165. GREENE 18½-IN. X 43-IN. STEAM ENGINE

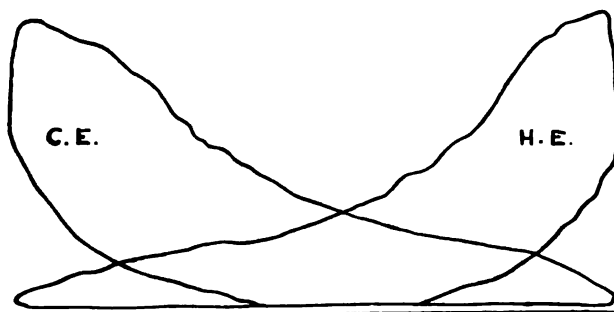


FIG. 17a. (SCALE—80 LB.)

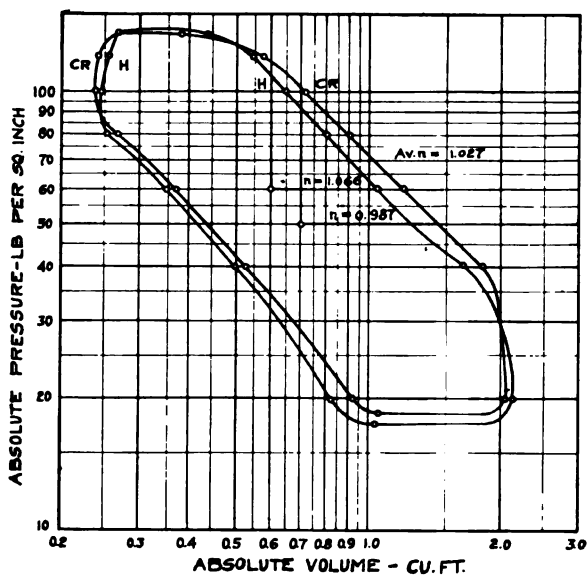


FIG. 17b. 16-IN. X 16-IN. HIGH SPEED STEAM ENGINE

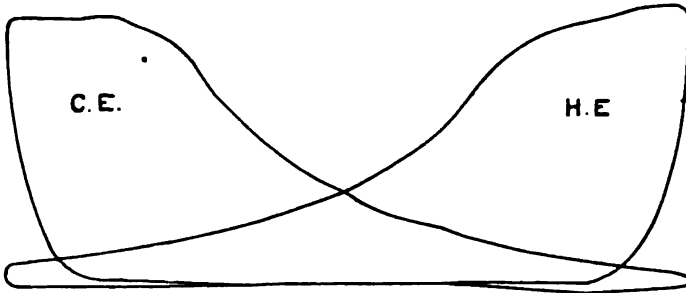


FIG. 18a. HIGH PRESSURE (SCALE-80 LB.)

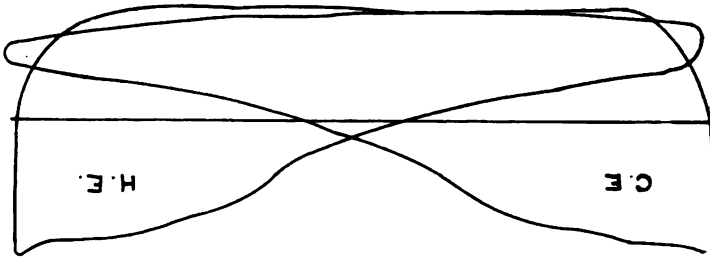


FIG. 18a. LOW PRESSURE (SCALE-20 LB.)

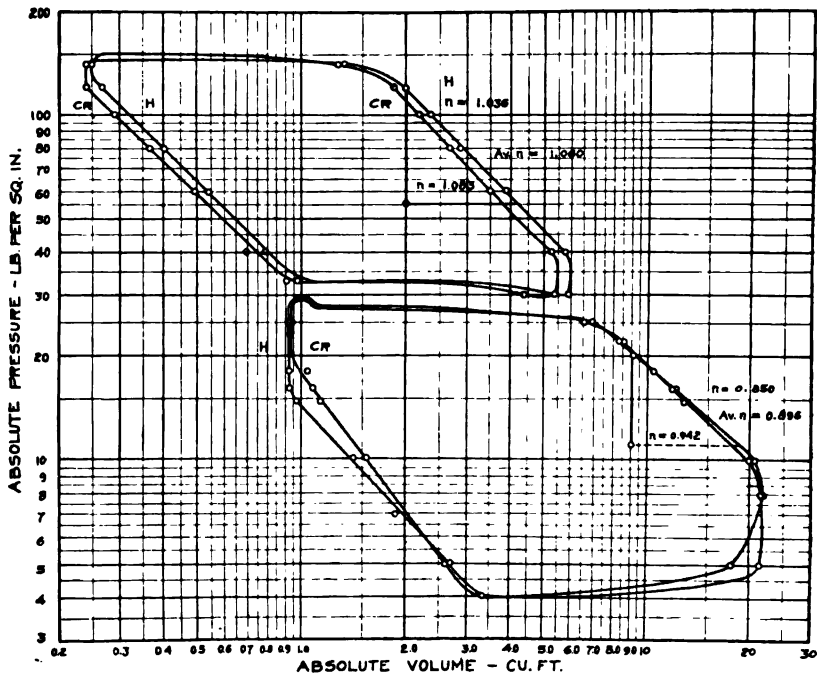


FIG. 18b. BUCKEYE 18 1/2-IN. x 36-IN. x 36-IN. STEAM ENGINE

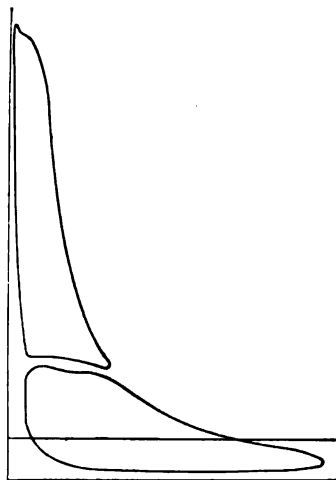


FIG. 19a. RICE AND SARGENT 16-IN. x 26-IN. x 42-IN. SUPERHEATED STEAM ENGINE (SCALE—64.6 LB.)

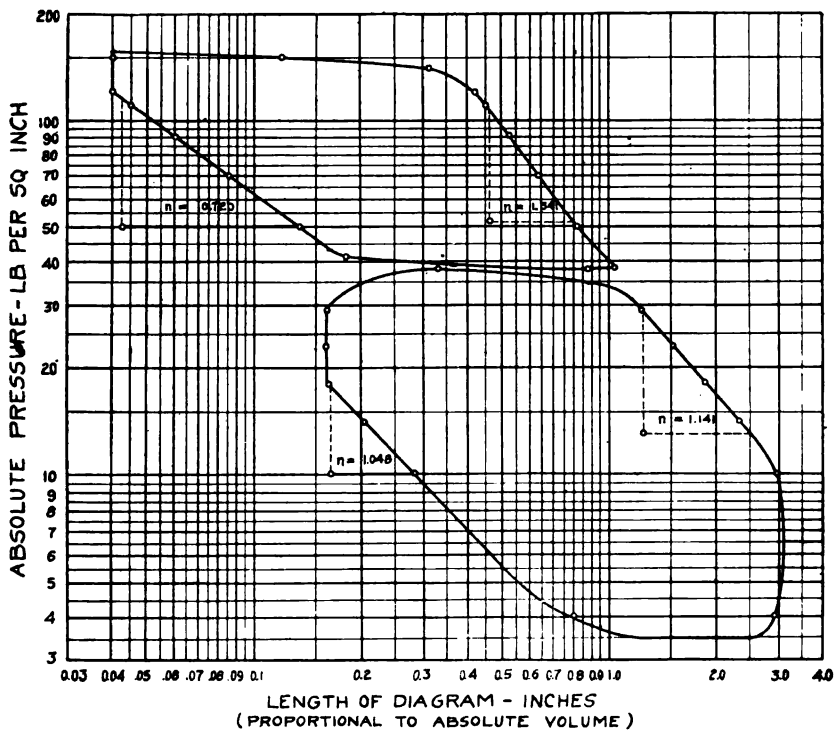


FIG. 19b. RICE AND SARGENT 16-IN. x 26-IN. x 42-IN. STEAM ENGINE USING HIGHLY SUPERHEATED STEAM

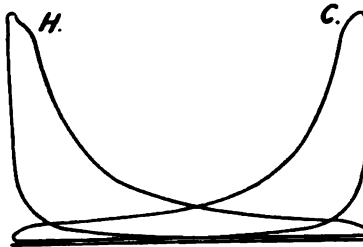


FIG. 20a. (SCALE—103 LB.)

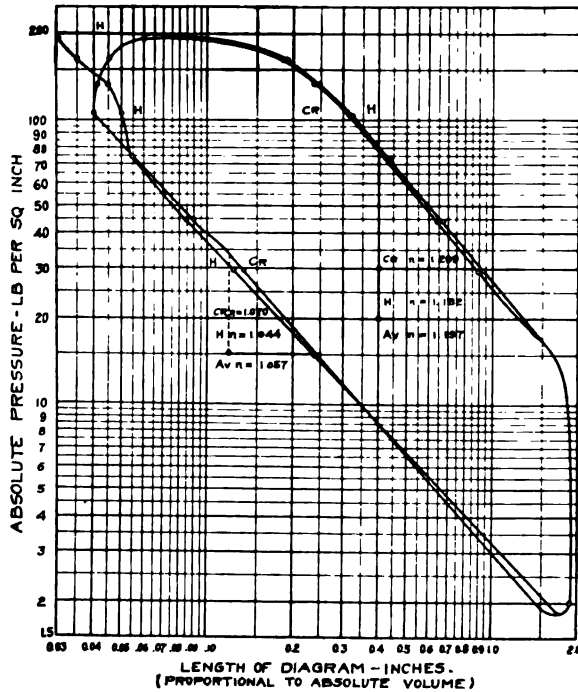


FIG. 20b. STUMPF 23½-IN. X 3¼-IN. UNI-DIRECTIONAL-FLOW STEAM ENGINE USING SUPERHEATED STEAM

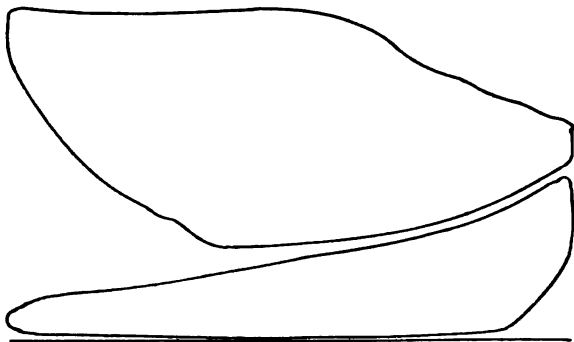


FIG. 21a. (SCALE—80 LB.)

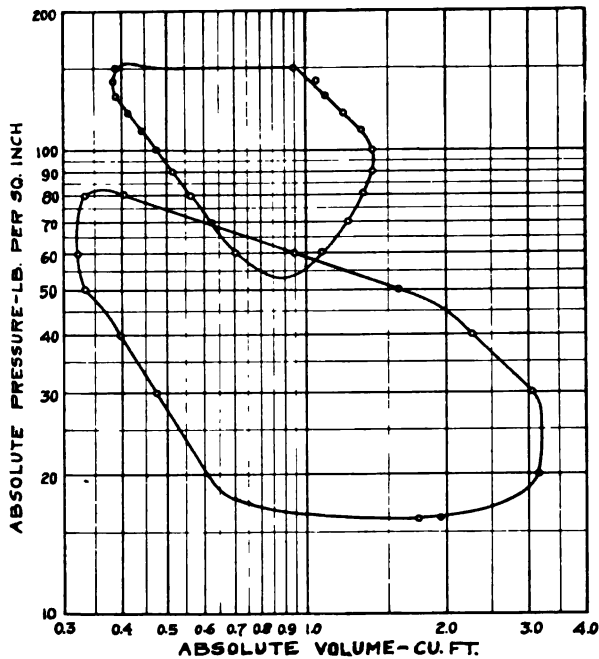


FIG. 21b. WESTINGHOUSE SINGLE-ACTING 13-IN. X 22-IN. X 13-IN STEAM ENGINE

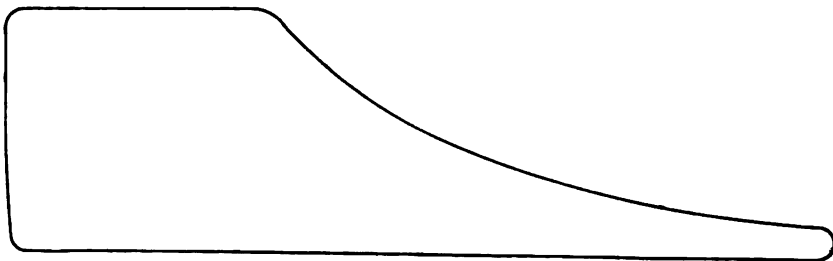


FIG. 22a. H. P. TOP (SCALE-100 LB.)



FIG. 22a. H. P. BOTTOM (SCALE-100 LB.)

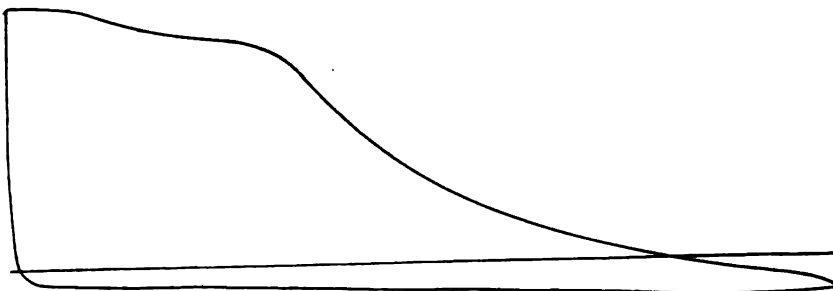


FIG. 22a. I. P. TOP (SCALE-20 LB.)

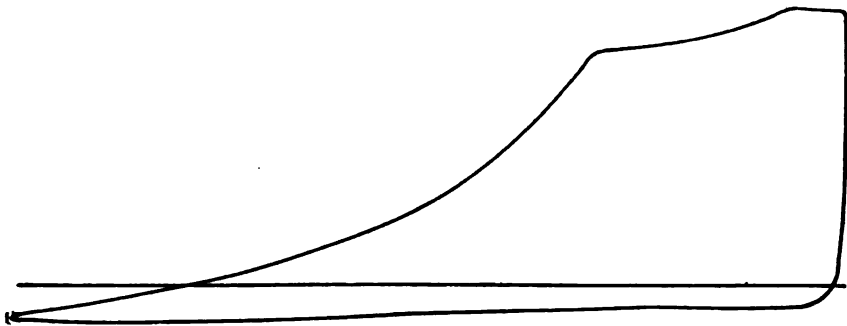


FIG. 22a. I. P. BOTTOM (SCALE—20 BL.)

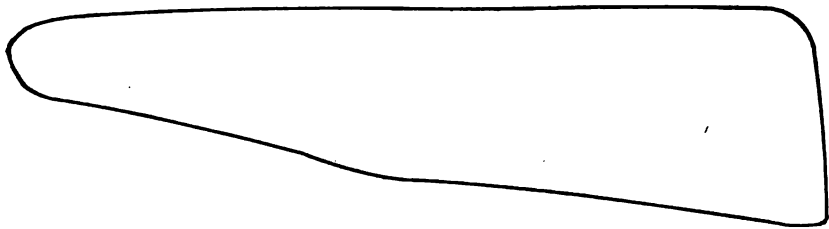


FIG. 22a. L. P. TOP (SCALE—10 LB.)



FIG. 22a. L. P. BOTTOM (SCALE—10 LB.)

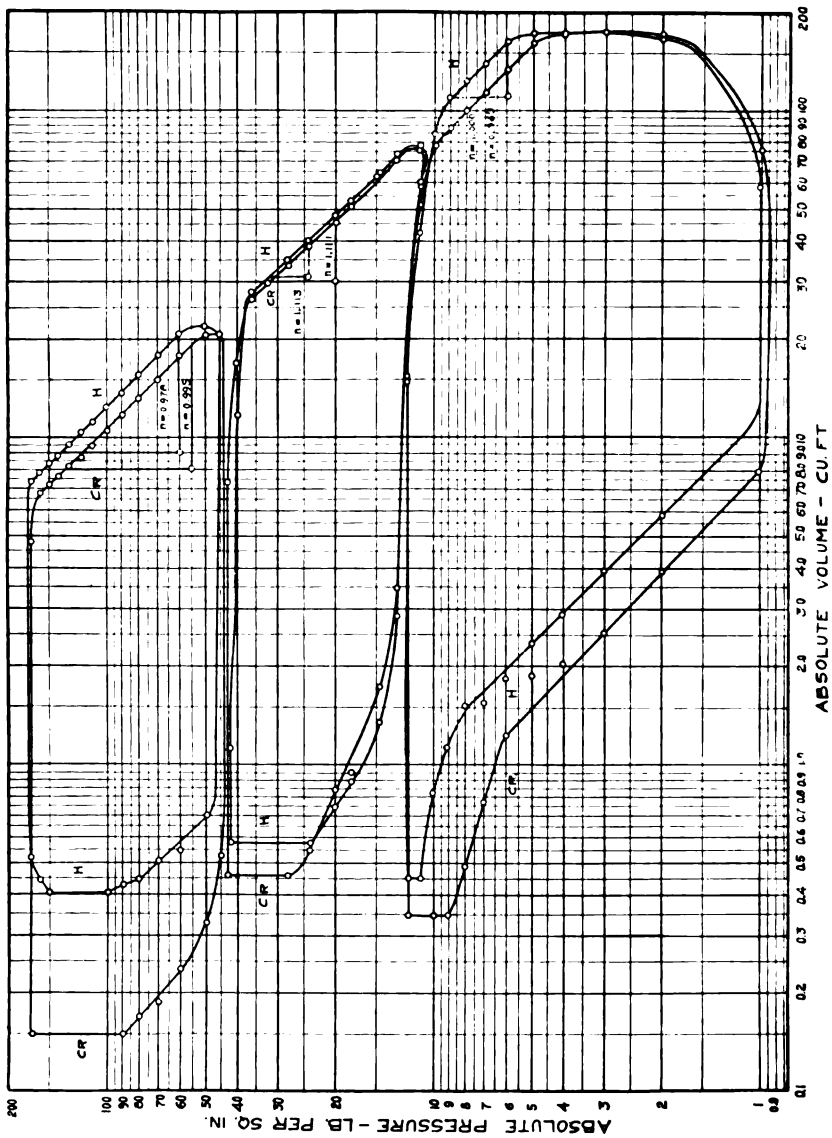


FIG. 32b. ALLIS-CHALMERS PUMPING ENGINE 28-IN. x 54-IN. x 80-IN. x 60-IN. USING SATURATED STEAM

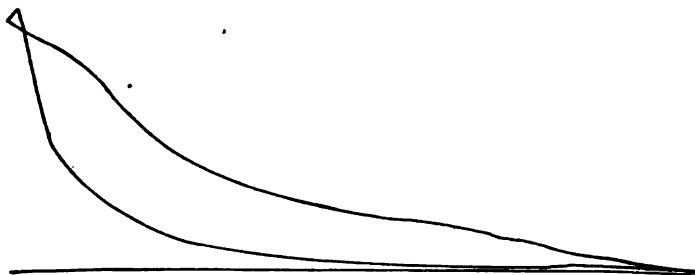


FIG. 23a. HEAD END (SCALE—150 LB.)

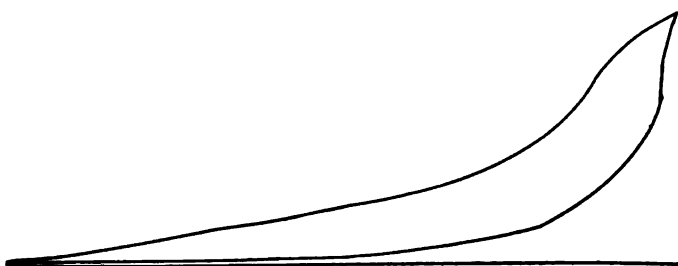


FIG. 23b. CRANK END (SCALE—150 LB.)

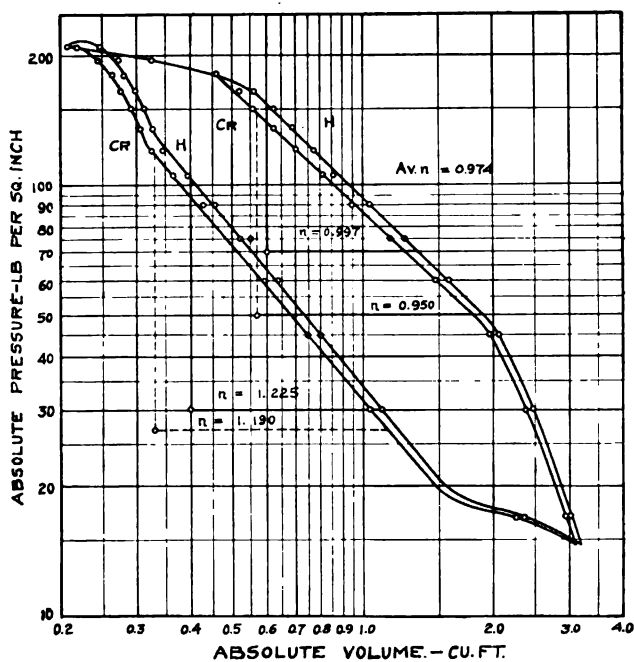


FIG. 23c. PURDUE 16-IN. X 24-IN. SUPERHEATED STEAM LOCOMOTIVE



FIG. 24g. HEAD END (SCALE=100 LB.)



FIG. 24g. CRANK END (SCALE=100 LB.)

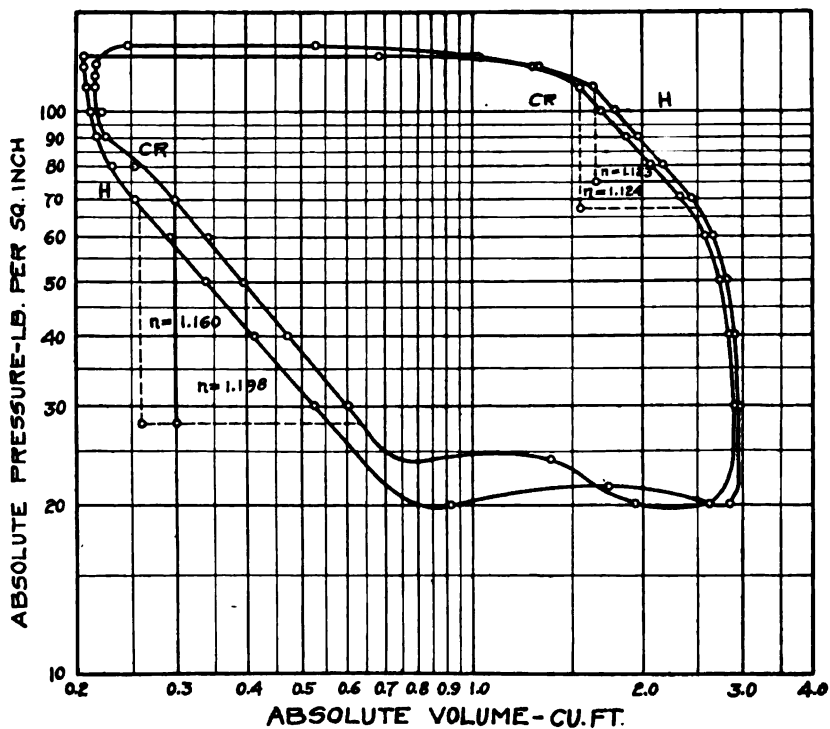


FIG. 24b. PURDUE 16-IN. x 24-IN SUPERHEATED STEAM LOCOMOTIVE

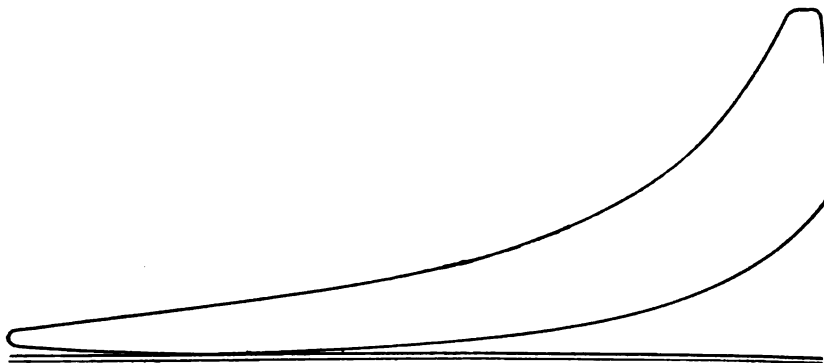


FIG. 25a. (SCALE—160 LB.)

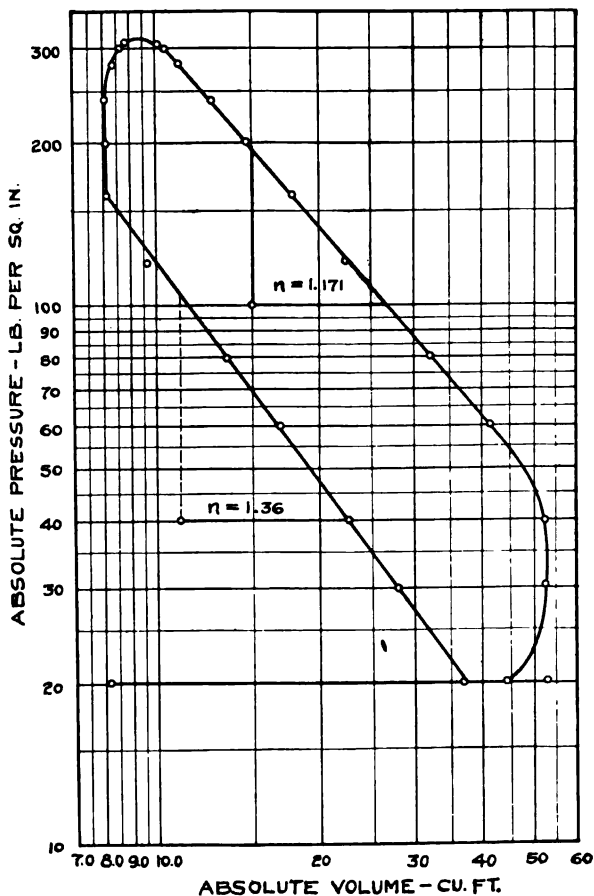


FIG. 25b. TOD 42-IN X 60-IN. GAS ENGINE BLAST FURNACE

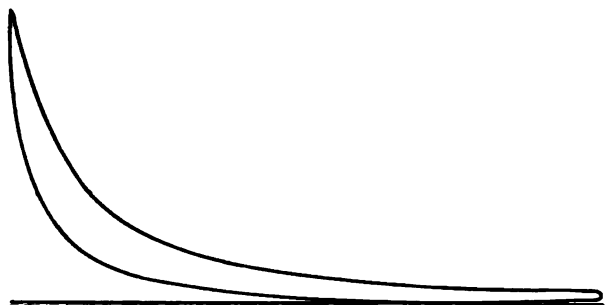


FIG. 26a. (SCALE 400 LB.)

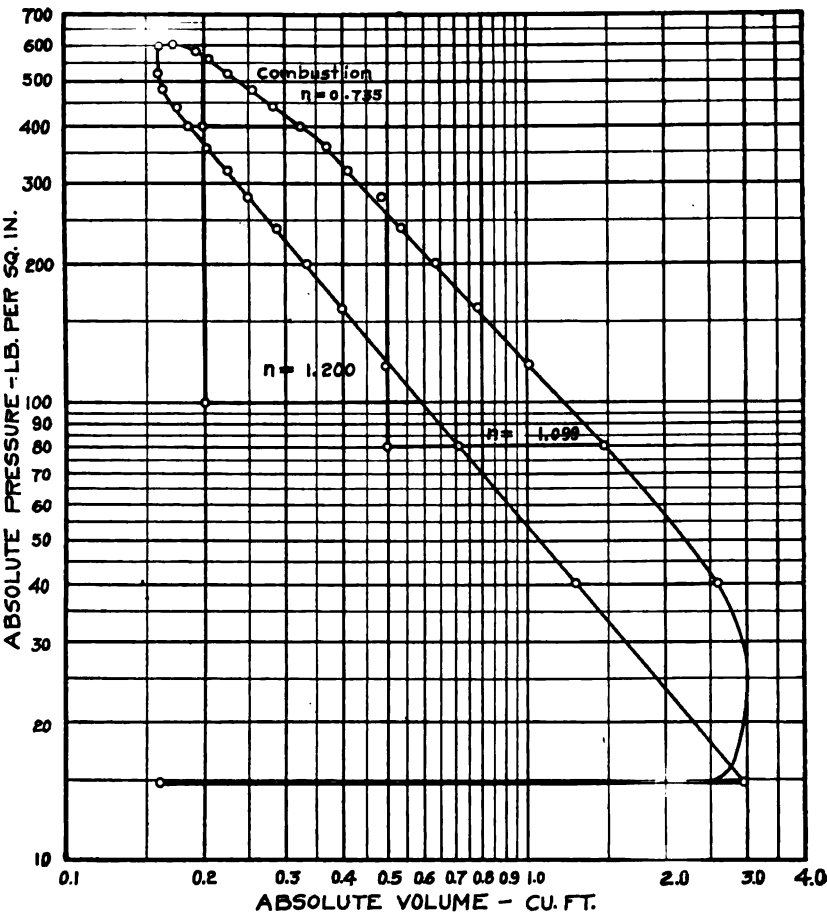


FIG. 26b DIESEL 16-IN. X 24-IN. OIL ENGINE USING CRUDE OIL

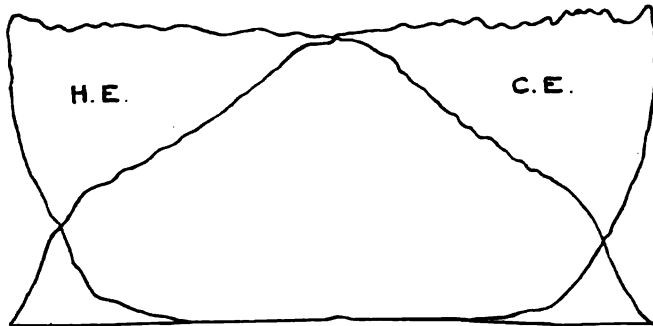


FIG. 27a HIGH PRESSURE (SCALE—120 LB.)

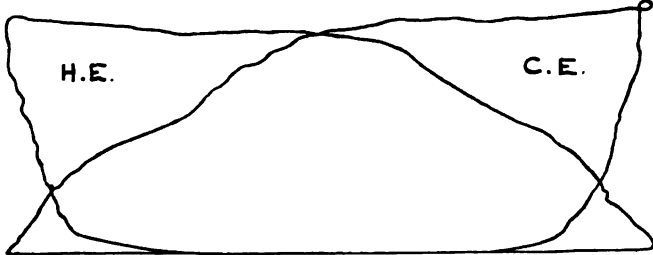


FIG. 27a LOW PRESSURE (SCALE—40 LB.)

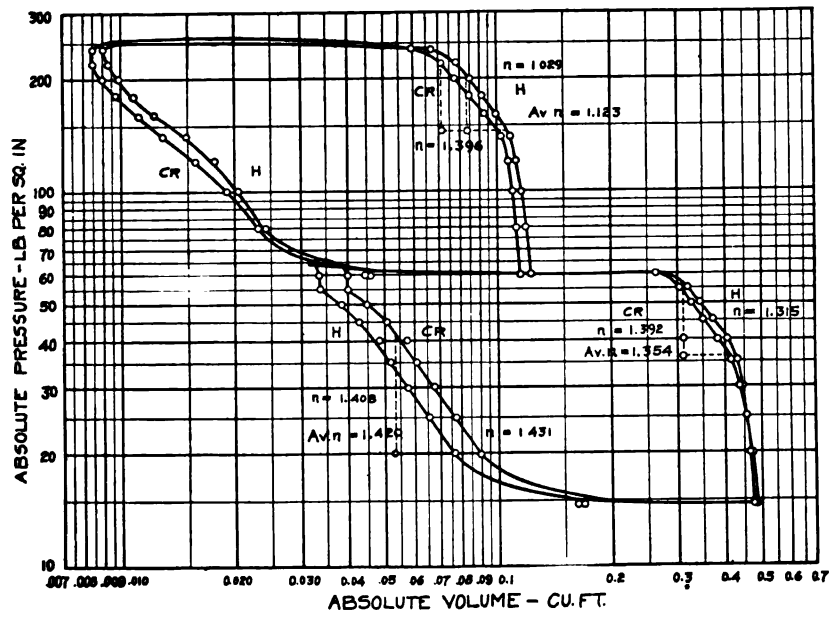


FIG. 27b PORTER AIR LOCOMOTIVE—COMPOUND 5-IN. x 10-IN. x 10-IN

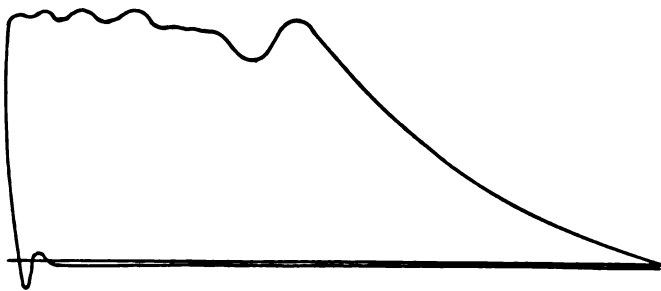


FIG. 28a. HEAD END-LOW PRESSURE (SCALE 17.5 LB.)

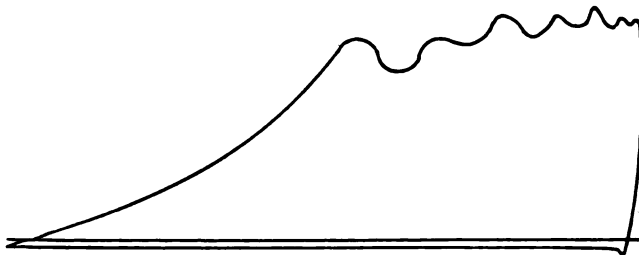


FIG. 28a. CRANK END-LOW PRESSURE (SCALE 21.6 LB.)

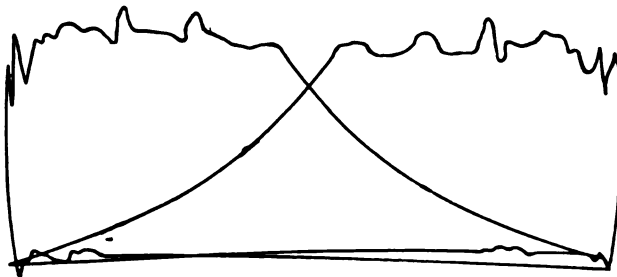
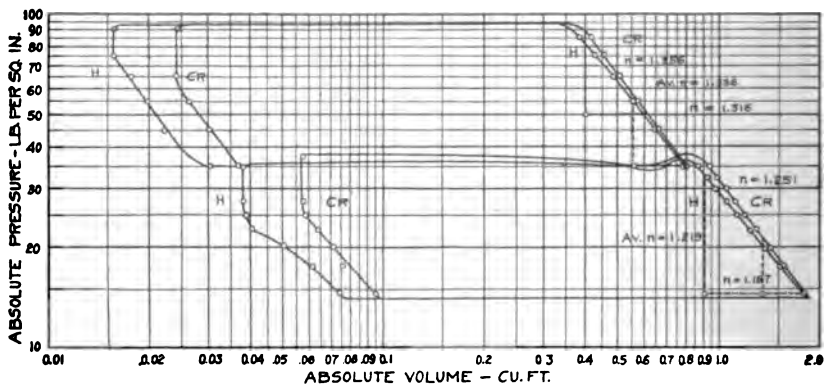


FIG. 28a. HIGH PRESSURE (SCALE 50 LB.)



280 FIG. INGERSOLL --SERGEANT 12 1/4-IN. X 18 1/4-IN. 12-IN TWO-STAGE AIR COMPRESSOR

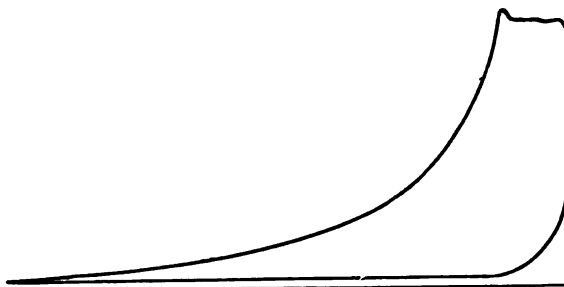
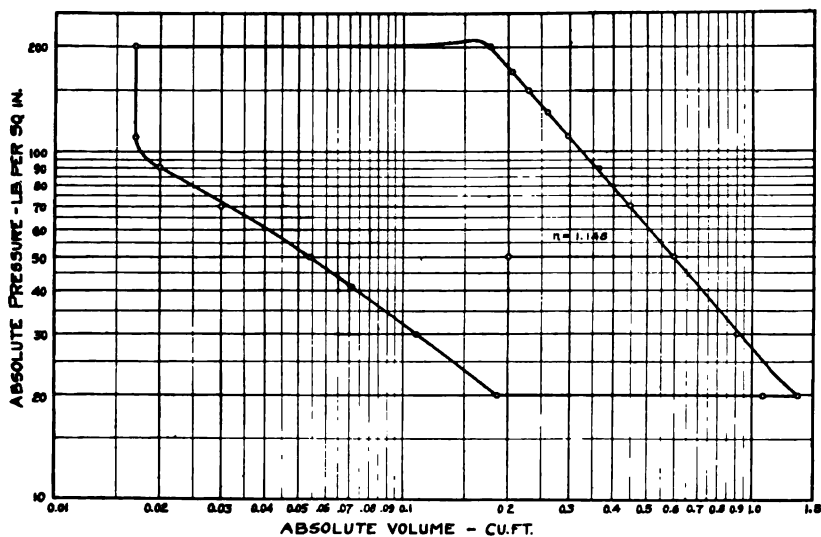


FIG. 29a. (SCALE—135 LB.)

FIG. 29b. YORK SINGLE-ACTING 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ -IN. X 18-IN. AMMONIA COMPRESSOR

gas, air and ammonia as the active media. The values of n for the curves are given in each figure. The types of steam engines represented include Corliss, high speed, auxiliary cut-off, poppet valve, single acting, pumping and locomotive engines. The gas-engine diagrams include two four cycle types, one using blast furnace gas, and the other a Diesel engine using crude petroleum. The air diagrams contain one set from a compound air locomotive, and one set from a two-stage air compressor.

These figures show most of the typical forms of diagrams that are obtained in practice. At first sight, the logarithmic diagrams look distorted, but after the meanings of the different lines become clear, they begin to seem as natural as the PV -diagram. These logarithmic diagrams show how closely the law $PV^n = C$ holds in actual curves from a great variety of engines using different media.

5. *Cases Where the Law $PV^n = C$ Does Not Hold.*—The curves of expansion and compression, obtained from PV -diagrams, do not always follow the law $PV^n = C$. This fact is due to several causes, some of which have been definitely determined. These causes will be treated separately.

a. *Wrong Clearance, or Wrong Location of the Zero Line of Pressure.*—The law $PV^n = C$, is true only where P and V are measured in absolute units. The clearance must be accurately determined in order to give absolute values of V . The scale of the spring, for the PV -diagram analyzed, must be known, and the atmospheric line drawn by the indicator, in order to locate the zero line of pressure. The units used for P or V may be of any denomination, but they must be measured from the zero of P and V .

When a curve, $PV^n = C$, is plotted on logarithmic paper, the resultant curve is a straight line. The value of n , as already explained, is the slope of this line, measured from any two points. When the values of P and V are not absolute values, this curve is no longer a straight line, but becomes a curve of the second degree. The value of n being the slope obtained from two points on this curve, is no longer constant for all parts of the curve, but varies from point to point. Therefore, when PV -diagrams are transformed to logarithmic diagrams, the values of both P and V must be measured in absolute units. When these values are not in absolute units, the resulting curve is not of the form, $PV^n = C$, and therefore is not a straight line on logarithmic paper. The form of the curve obtained, when the values of V alone are not in absolute units, is given in Fig. 10b.

b. *Leakage*.—The law $PV^n = C$, is applicable only to cases where the weight of the working medium remains practically constant during any expansion or compression. When this weight changes materially either by leakage into, or out from, the cylinder containing the medium, the resulting curve no longer obeys the law, and it becomes a curve in the logarithmic diagram. This fact is very clearly shown in the curves of the logarithmic diagram derived from cylinders in which large leaks were known to exist. The examples showing this condition are shown in pp. 39, 41, 42.

c. *Low Speed in Steam Engines*.—Very low speeds of rotation, together with very low piston speeds, will cause the compression curve to deviate from the law $PV^n = C$. The most common cases of this effect are seen in the "hook", or excessive condensation, near the upper end of compression curves. These "hooks" are found almost altogether in small engines having very low piston speeds, and in larger engines with small clearance, having very low rotational speeds, as in pumping engines.

Diagrams containing "hooks" in the compression curves have been published by Professor Dwelshauvers-Dery¹ from the experimental engine at Liege. This is an example of a very low speed in a small engine. The size was 12 in. x 24 in. and the speed from 30 to 60 r. p. m. That this hook was caused by low speed and consequent excessive condensation was proved in a measure in the case of the engine described on page 88. This engine was also 12 in. x 24 in., but was operated at from 90 to 150 r. p. m. In no case was a hook in the compression curve obtained during the tests, although some 1600 diagrams were taken. A set of diagrams from these tests is shown in Fig. 15 and shows no sign of a hook. On one occasion, however, the diagram shown in Fig. 30 was obtained. This was taken just after the engine was started from cold, and had been brought up to a speed of 120 r. p. m. In conjunction with the other diagrams obtained from this engine in regular operation, this hook is believed to be due to excessive



FIG. 30. TAKEN WHILE STARTING FROM COLD

¹ Power, June 28, 1910, p. 1165.

condensation while the cylinder was comparatively cold.

Diagrams with the hook present in the compression curves have been obtained from two other engines; one was an 8½ in. x 12 in., running 110 r. p. m., and the other, 5 in. x 6 in., running 140 r. p. m.

This excessive condensation at the end of compression, or near the dead center, seems to be due to the fact that the deleterious surface effect of the cylinder walls is so enormous, compared with the weight and volume of steam present at this point.

The three causes treated above are believed to be the important conditions that cause the curves in practice to depart materially from the law $PV^n = C$. Sometimes only one of these conditions is present, while in the other cases, a combination of these may influence the resulting curves. The separation of these conditions by their effect on the curves is treated in page 45.

VALUES OF n FROM PRACTICE.

6. *Steam Engines*.—The values of n for the expansion and compression curves of indicator diagrams are subject to a wide variation. Zeuner¹ gives the values of n found by several early investigators. These values were taken mostly from the diagrams of small and slow-speed engines. Leloutre found that the value of n was practically constant for any one case, but varied greatly in different engines, according to the initial pressure and ratio of expansion. Lüders found values ranging from 0.903 to 0.535. Zeuner found values of from 0.900 to 0.436 from diagrams taken by Hallauer from a Corliss engine. In none of these cases was n found to be as high as 1.0. Zeuner concludes that the value is generally close to 1.0, and does not vary much either way.

Heck² shows diagrams from the cylinders of compound Corliss engines, locomotives, pumping engines, and marine engines, all using saturated steam. The values of n for saturated steam from the expansion curves of the h. p. cylinders of these engines are all close to 1.0. The values for the l. p. expansion curves are generally less than 1.0, ranging from about 0.95 to 0.90. The values for the compression curves shown do not depart far from 1.0.

A large number of curves have been examined by the graphical method described on page 52. These examples, shown in Table 7-14, may be classed as follows:

¹ Technical Thermodynamics, II. p. 111.

² The Steam Engine, II. p. 476.

- Class A. Corliss, four-valve, and riding-cut-off types, all simple expansion
B. Same, compound.
C. Same, triple expansion.
D. Gridiron valve type, compound, steam jacketed.
E. Poppet valve type.
F. High speed engines, single valve types.
G. Single-acting engines.
H. Locomotive engines.

These classes cover the values derived from 138 diagrams taken from 36 separate engines. On page 8, are given the values obtained from 60 sets of diagrams taken from a 12 in. \times 24 in. Corliss engine.

The values given in Tables 7-14 are the average values from both ends of one cylinder, and, in the case of two-cylinder simple engines, from both ends of both cylinders. In many cases only the expansion curves were examined.

These diagrams were taken from cylinders ranging in size from 11½ in. \times 13 in. up to 80 in. \times 60 in., and in speed from 300 r. p. m. down to 23.6 r. p. m. Most of the cylinders were unjacketed. Examples of both saturated and superheated steam are shown. It will be seen, therefore, that the range of the exhibit is very broad.

It is evident that the values of n are subject to extremely wide variations, the range being from 0.436, found by Zeuner, up to 1.341, found in this investigation in the case of an engine using highly superheated steam. It is true, however, that the average of all the values cited is not far from 1.0.

7. *Gas Engines*.—The values of n for the curves of gas engine diagrams have a smaller range of variation than that found in steam diagrams.

Göldner¹ finds that the value of n for the compression curves varies from 1.30 to 1.38, with an average of about 1.35, but he mentions rare values higher than the adiabatic value, due to high temperature of cylinder walls, and the consequent addition of heat to the gas during compression. He finds that n for expansion² varies normally from 1.35 to 1.50, but cites lower values than 1.35 due to leakage, and higher values than 1.50 due to excessive temperature of cylinder walls from poor cooling.

¹ Internal Combustion Engines, p. 34.

² Internal Combustion Engines, p. 38.

Wimperis³ gives the values found by Professor Burstall from diagrams taken during 10 tests on the same engine, presumably. Professor Burstall finds n for expansion to vary from 1.199 to 1.344, with an average of 1.288. The values of n for compression vary from 1.345 to 1.364, with an average of 1.352.

The examination of 17 diagrams from 5 separate engines gave values for expansion and compression as given in Table 15. These values given show that the variation of n for expansion is ordinarily from 1.10 to 1.37, while for compression it is from

TABLE 7
VALUES OF n FROM CLASS A STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Value of n		No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
	Expansion	Compression			
18¼ x 43	0.952	1.007	2	Greene	Saturated steam
..	0.998	1.115	2	..	
15¼ x 24	1.049	1.170	2	Buckeye	
26¼ x 36	0.928	1.063	2	..	
..	0.883	1.036	2	..	
..	0.906	1.121	2	..	
20 x 30	0.624	0.985	2	..	
..	1.024	0.992	2	..	
18 x 42	1.047	0.994	2	Unknown	
16 x 32	1.065	1.154	2	Buckeye	
..	1.111	1.341	2	..	
16¾ x 32	0.964		2	Unknown	
26½ x 48	1.051		2	..	
17 x 24.2	1.131		4	..	
23 x 60	1.098		2	..	
28¼ x 59¼	1.108		2	..	
11 Engines	Total—34 Diagrams				

TABLE 8
VALUES OF n FROM CLASS B STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion		Compression		No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
	h. p.	l. p.	h. p.	l. p.			
18¼ x 36 x 36	1.060	0.896			4	Buckeye	Saturated steam
15 x 40½ x 27	0.955				2	Fleming	
20 x 36 x 48	1.055	0.973	0.973	0.742	4	Watts Campbell	
21 x 42 x 36	1.068		0.987		4	Gaskell	
25 x 50 x 37	0.841	0.879	0.850		8	Worthington	
22 x 40 x 60	1.070	1.009	1.018	1.272	4	Harris-Corliss	Cyls. jacketed
20 x 36 x 48	1.079	0.977			4	Watts Campbell	non-jacketed
16 x 40 x 48	1.090	0.950			4	Cooper Corliss	
..	1.048	1.116			4		Cyls. jacketed
8 Engines	Total—38 Diagrams						

³ The Internal Combustion Engine, p. 73.

TABLE 9
VALUES OF η FROM CLASS C STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion			No. of Diagrams Examined	Remarks
	h. p.	l. p.	l. p.		
28 x 54 x 80 x 60	0.987	1.112	0.984	6	Saturated steam Cylinders jacketed
Compression					
28 x 54 x 80 x 60 1 Engine	0.984	0.416	0.972	Total—6 Diagrams	

TABLE 10
VALUES OF η FROM CLASS D STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion		No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
	h. p.	l. p.			
28 x 58 x 48	1.046	1.070	2	McIntosh Seymour & Co.	Superheated steam Jackets not used
23 x 48 x 48	0.955	0.969	2		
..	..	1.108	1		
..	0.905	0.925	2		
..	1.119	1.075	2		
29 x 60 x 56	..	1.231	1		
29 x 60 x 56	..	1.172	1		
18 x 38 x 42	1.170	0.925	2		
18 x 38 x 42	1.118	1.087	2		
31 x 64 x 48	1.024	0.973	2		
7 Engines	Total—17 Diagrams				

TABLE 11
VALUES OF η FROM CLASS E STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion		Com- pression		No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
	h. p.	l. p.	h. p.	l. p.			
16 x 28 x 42	1.341	1.141	0.720	1.048	2	Rice and Sargent	Highly superheated steam
..	1.260	1.180	1.262	1.210	2		..
..	1.293	1.152	0.980	0.989	2		..
..	1.033	1.011	0.710	1.060	2	Stumpf Straight Flow	Saturated steam
23½ x 31½	1.197		1.057		2		Highly superheated steam
2 Engines	Total—10 Diagrams						

TABLE 12
VALUES OF η FROM CLASS F STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion h. p.	No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
14½ x 13	0.970	2	Unknown	Saturated steam
16 x 16	1.027	2	Idc	
11½ x 18½	0.706	2	Unknown	
3 Engines	Total—6 Diagrams			

TABLE 13
VALUES OF n FROM CLASS G STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion		No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
	h. p.	l. p.			
13 x 22 x 13	1.073	0.874	2	Westinghouse	Saturated steam
..	1.054	0.863	2		
..	1.062		1		
1 Engine	Total—5 Diagrams				

TABLE 14
VALUES OF n FROM CLASS H STEAM ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion	Compression	No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
16 x 24	1.003		4	Schenectady No. 2	Saturated steam
22 x 30	0.985	0.987	2	I. C. No. 940	
"	0.981		2	"	
22 x 30	0.975	0.970	2	I. C. No. 920	Superheated steam
"	1.006	1.125	2	"	
16 x 24	0.974	1.208	2	Schenectady No. 3	
"	1.124	1.179	2	"	
"	1.167	1.195	2	"	
"	1.046	1.188	2	"	
"	1.149		2	"	
3 Engines	Total—22 Diagrams				

TABLE 15
VALUES OF n FROM 4-CYCLE GAS ENGINES

Size inches	Expansion	Compression	No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Gas Used
10 x 19	1.36	1.19	1	Otto	Illuminating
"	1.37	1.09	1	"	
"	1.27	1.26	1	"	
"	1.21	1.35	1	"	
"	1.26	1.35	1	"	
"	1.25	1.74	1	"	
"	1.30	1.43	1	"	
"	1.16	1.27	1	"	
"	1.21	1.43	1	"	
42 x 60	1.16	1.32	1	Tod	Blast furnace
"	1.16	1.30	1	"	
"	1.09	1.32	1	"	
32 x 42	1.18	1.34	1	Allis-Chalmers	Producer
25% x 37%	1.12	1.24	1	Koerting	Petroleum
16 x 24	1.10	1.20	1	Diesel	
"	1.11	1.22	1	"	
"	1.02	1.22	1	"	
5 Engines	Total—17 Diagrams				

TABLE 16
VALUES OF n FROM COMPRESSED AIR LOCOMOTIVES

Size inches	Expansion		No. of Diagrams Examined	Make
	h. p.	l. p.		
5 x 10 x 10 6 x 10	1.123 1.369	1.354	4 4	Porter
2 Engines	Total— 8 Diagrams			

TABLE 17
VALUES OF n FROM AIR COMPRESSORS

Size inches	Compression		No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
	h. p.	l. p.			
12½ x 18¼ x 12	1.336 1.266	1.219 1.254	4 4	Ingersoll-Sargent	Small amt. of cooling water Large
1 Compressor	Total— 8 Diagrams				

TABLE 18
VALUES OF n FROM AMMONIA COMPRESSORS

Size inches	Compression	No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
12½ x 18	1.148	1	York	Dry comp. sing. acting
12½ x 18	1.186	2	"	Doub.
	1.235	2	"	Wet compression
2 Compressors	Total— 5 Diagrams			

TABLE 19
VALUES OF n FROM GAS COMPRESSORS

Size inches	Compression	No. of Diagrams Examined	Make	Remarks
28¼ x 24	1.140 1.145	2 2	Ingersoll-Sargent	Illuminating gas
1 Compressor	Total— 4 Diagrams			

about 1.20 to 1.40, leaving out of account very high values due to imperfect cooling and very low values due to leakage and to cool walls during the period of "starting up." The values of n are low for expansion in large cylinders with lean gases, being about the same as those found in steam cylinders using superheated steam.

8. *Compressed Air Engines.*—Very few data have been found concerning the values of n from diagrams taken from compressed air engines. Locomotives comprise the large part of this class which use air expansively.

Curves were examined from eight diagrams taken from the four cylinders of two locomotives, one a compound, and the other a simple expansion type. The results are given in Table 16.

The expansion curves of these diagrams were very satisfactory, but the compression curves were all irregular, and no values were obtained from most of them. This irregularity was probably due to the vibration that is present in most locomotives under running conditions. The values for expansion range from about 1.12 to 1.37.

9. *Air Compressors.*—Only 8 diagrams from one two-stage compressor were available for examination. The values of n for compression are given in Table 17. No values for re-expansion were obtained.

The values for compression in air compressors do not vary much, and will generally fall between 1.20 and 1.35.

10. *Ammonia Compressors.*—The examples available of this type of compressor were limited to 5 diagrams from 2 compressors. The compression curves were very satisfactory, but the re-expansion curves were quite irregular. These values will be found in Table 18. The values found fall between about 1.15 and 1.24, very little variation being observed.

11. *Gas Compressors.*—This class refers to compressors used to raise the pressure of illuminating gas in order to send it to distant points in small pipes. The analysis of the gas compressed in the single case examined is given on page 86. Values of n were obtained for the compression curves only. These values are given in Table 19. Although taken at different conditions of the speed and the discharge pressure, these values show substantial agreement, but are considerably lower than the values obtained for air compression.

THEORETICAL VALUES OF k FOR ADIABATIC EXPANSION

The relations of P and V during adiabatic expansion of steam and gases may be closely represented by the equation for the polytropic curve $PV^k = C$.

The value of k for steam depends upon the initial state, while for gases k is equal to the ratio $\frac{C_p}{C_v}$.

12. Values of k for Steam.

(a) *Saturated Steam.* Rankine¹ gives the value of k as $\frac{10}{9}$, or 1.111, applicable to all initial states.

Grashof² examined the condition of initially dry saturated steam and gives the value of k as 1.140.

Zeuner³ examined the condition generally occurring in engineering practice, where the steam is initially composed of a mixture of vapor and water, and gives the relation

$$k = 1.035 + 0.1x.$$

He found the influence of initial pressure to be negligible.

Mr. E. H. Stone⁴ examined the condition of various initial states of pressure and quality, using the tables of Marks and Davis, and gives the relation

$$k = 1.059 - 0.000315P + (0.0706 + 0.000376P)x.$$

Table 20 was computed from this equation and expresses the relations of P and V with an average error of less than 0.2%.

(b) *Superheated Steam.* Zeuner⁵ gives the value of k as constant at $\frac{4}{3}$, or 1.333. Several conditions have been examined for the initial state of 200 lb. absolute pressure with the superheat varying from 80° to 530°. The relations of P and V were computed from Professor G. A. Goodenough's characteristic equations⁶ for superheated steam.

It has been found, after many trials, that these relations are closely expressed by the equation

$$P(V + 0.088)^{1.305} = C.$$

This equation expresses the relations of P and V with an average error of about 0.5 per cent. The initial pressure and the degree

¹ The Steam Engine, p. 385.

² Zeitschrift des Vereins deutscher Ingenieure, Vol. VIII, p. 151.

³ Technical Thermodynamics II, p. 83.

⁴ Thesis, University of Illinois, 1910.

⁵ Technical Thermodynamics, II, p. 223.

⁶ Principles of Thermodynamics, p. 203.

of superheat have very little effect upon the value of k for the ranges commonly used in practice.

18. *Values for Gases.*—The values of k for gaseous mixtures commonly used in gas engines exhibit considerable variation due to the variation in the relative proportion of the constituents. The value of k for any gas is the value of the ratio $\frac{C_p}{C_v}$, and its constancy depends on the relative constancy of the value of C_p and C_v at different temperatures. It seems certain, from experiments of Mallard and Le Chatelier, that the values of C_p and C_v increase with increase of temperatures, but that the ratio $\frac{C_p}{C_v}$ at temperatures common to actual gas engine cycles, is very closely constant.

Most of the following data on the value of k for gases has been taken from Guldner¹. The value of k depends, in any particular mixture, upon the relative proportion of the constituents. This may be seen from the values of k for different gases given in Table 21, from Guldner. This table shows that by different proportions of these gases in a mixture, values of k may be obtained between the extreme limits of 1.210 and 1.418. Thus k for illuminating gas alone, for example, may have a value of 1.332, while for a mixture of this gas with air in the proportion of 1 to 12, the value rises to 1.402, or very nearly the value of pure air. After combustion, the analysis of the gas changes, causing a change of k , the effect being a lowering of its value because of the increase in proportion of CO_2 and H_2O . Thus for the mixture cited above the value of k after combustion is 1.387, a drop of 1.1 per cent. This, in a hypothetical case of an ideal gas engine cycle, would cause an appreciable difference in the form of the expansion curve.

Table 22 gives all the data necessary to compute the value of k for the case of one sample of illuminating gas without air. The case of this same illuminating gas with varying ratios of $\frac{\text{air}}{\text{gas}}$ is given in Table 23. This table gives the data for the same gas with the varying combustible ratios of $\frac{\text{air}}{\text{gas}}$ such as would obtain in gas engine practice.

Table 24 gives the data and values after combustion of the different mixtures of Table 23.

The value of k for any particular gas or gaseous mixture is found as in Table 22. In general, rich gases, such as illuminat-

¹Internal Combustion Engines.

TABLE 20
ADIABATIC VALUES* OF k FOR VARIOUS INITIAL
STATES OF PRESSURE AND QUALITY

Initial Quality	Initial Pressure lb. per sq. in. abs.											
	20	40	60	80	100	120	140	160	180	200	220	240
1.00	1.131	1.132	1.133	1.134	1.136	1.137	1.138	1.139	1.141	1.142	1.143	1.145
0.95	1.127	1.128	1.129	1.129	1.131	1.131	1.133	1.132	1.134	1.135	1.135	1.137
0.90	1.123	1.123	1.124	1.124	1.126	1.125	1.127	1.126	1.127	1.127	1.128	1.129
0.85	1.119	1.119	1.119	1.119	1.120	1.120	1.119	1.119	1.120	1.120	1.120	1.121
0.80	1.115	1.115	1.114	1.114	1.114	1.114	1.113	1.113	1.113	1.113	1.112	1.112
0.75	1.111	1.110	1.110	1.109	1.109	1.108	1.107	1.108	1.106	1.105	1.104	1.104
0.70	1.108	1.106	1.105	1.104	1.104	1.103	1.101	1.100	1.099	1.098	1.097	1.096
0.65	1.104	1.102	1.101	1.099	1.098	1.096	1.095	1.093	1.092	1.091	1.089	1.088
0.60	1.100	1.098	1.096	1.094	1.093	1.091	1.089	1.087	1.085	1.084	1.081	1.080
0.55	1.096	1.093	1.092	1.089	1.087	1.085	1.083	1.080	1.078	1.076	1.074	1.072
0.50	1.092	1.089	1.087	1.084	1.082	1.079	1.077	1.074	1.071	1.069	1.066	1.064

*Values calculated by equation $k=1.059-0.000315 P + (0.0706 + 0.000376 P) x$

TABLE 21
ADIABATIC VALUES OF k
FOR VARIOUS GASES

Gas	Value of k
H	1.412
CH ₄	1.270
CO	1.408
C ₂ H ₄	1.210
CO ₂	1.293
O	1.418
N	1.408
H ₂ O	1.305
Air	1.410

TABLE 22
ADIABATIC VALUES OF k FOR AN AVERAGE
GERMAN ILLUMINATING GAS

Gases	Composition by		C_p	C_v	$G \times C_p$	$G \times C_v$
	Volume	Weight				
H	0.485	0.0945	3.430	2.430	0.2890	0.2050
CH ₄	0.350	0.4855	0.593	0.468	0.2880	0.2270
CO	0.070	0.1703	0.245	0.174	0.0416	0.0296
C ₂ H ₄	0.045	0.1063	0.400	0.330	0.0437	0.0360
CO ₂	0.020	0.0765	0.300	0.155	0.0153	0.0119
O	0.0025	0.0070	0.217	0.153	0.0015	0.0019
N	0.0275	0.0670	0.245	0.174	0.0164	0.0117
Total					0.6955	0.5231

$$k = \frac{0.6955}{0.5231} = 1.330$$

TABLE 23
ADIABATIC VALUES OF k FOR ILLUMINATING GAS OF
TABLE 22 WITH VARIOUS RATIOS $\frac{\text{AIR}}{\text{GAS}}$

Ratio $\frac{\text{air}}{\text{gas}}$ by vol.	V	6	8	10	12
Ratio $\frac{\text{air}}{\text{gas}}$ by wt.	G	15	20	25	30
Wt. per cu. ft. of Mix- ture	lb.	0.0732	0.0748	0.0757	0.0769
	C_p	0.2667	0.2598	0.2556	0.2527
	C_v	0.1914	0.1858	0.1828	0.1803
	k	1.393	1.397	1.399	1.402

TABLE 24
ADIABATIC VALUES OF k FOR GAS GIVEN
IN TABLE 23, AFTER COMBUSTION

Volume Ratio $\frac{\text{air}}{\text{gas}}$		6	8	10	12
Combustion of Burned Gases. volumes	CO ₂	0.530	0.530	0.530	0.530
	H ₂ O	1.275	1.275	1.275	1.275
	O	0.150	0.570	1.000	1.410
	N	4.708	6.348	7.923	9.508
Constants for Burned Gases from 1 lb.	C_p	0.2787	0.2674	0.2623	0.2566
	C_v	0.2035	0.1940	0.1894	0.1851
	k	1.370	1.380	1.385	1.387

ing gas or natural gas, require very large ratios of $\frac{\text{air}}{\text{gas}}$ and therefore the resulting mixtures have values of k very near the value for pure air, 1.405. In the case of lean gases, as blast furnace gas, or producer gas, requiring small ratios of $\frac{\text{air}}{\text{gas}}$ the value of k is lower or nearer the value k for the gas alone. The limits for ordinary gases and mixtures are between the values of 1.320 and 1.405, while after combustion these values are lowered somewhat, in general about 1 to 2 per cent. The range of values for gaseous mixtures is not nearly so large as with steam.

14. *Values for Air Compressors.*—The proportion of the constituents of air is almost always constant, so that the values C_p and C_v are always constant if we are discussing them in temperatures in the range of compressor practice. This makes the ratio of k constant. The value of k for air has been determined many times by different investigators in different ways. The degree of variation in determining this constant will be seen from Table 25. Zeuner¹ after discussing all the values and the experiments supporting them, concludes that the value 1.410 most clearly fits the case of pure dry air. Zeuner also shows that in cases of water injection in compressors, used to keep down the temperature, the value of k does not change materially from 1.410. The true value seems to lie between 1.405 and 1.410.

15. *Values for Compressed Air Engines.*—The temperatures existing in the engines using compressed air for the active medium are not far below that existing in compressors. Within the range covered by both, the value of k is, as far as can be ascertained, practically constant.

16. *Values for Ammonia.*—The properties of ammonia have not been so thoroughly investigated experimentally as those of air and the vapor of water. The value of k , depending on the value of the ratios $\frac{C_p}{C_v}$, therefore is not so certain as the values for the other working media given. Various determinations place the value of k as between 1.30 and 1.333, these values being somewhat similar to those of superheated steam.

17. *Values for Illuminating Gas and CO₂.*—Illuminating gas is often compressed to send it to outlying districts in cities, and there its pressure is reduced for distribution. The value of k here depends in each case on the value of the ratio $\frac{C_p}{C_v}$ from the

¹Technical Thermodynamics, I, p. 131.

analysis of the particular gas compressed. The analysis and values of the gas, made by the New Orleans Gas Company, New Orleans, La., which is compressed to send it to outlying districts of New Orleans, is given in Table 26.

The value of k for this gas, 1.349, is considerably higher than the value of the gas given in Table 22, 1.332. This is due to the very much larger proportion of CO in the gas of Table 26, and illustrates well the variation of this value with gases of similar heating value, but with a different proportion of the same constituents. Lummer and Pringsheim give the value of k for CO, as 1.2961 from their experiments. Guldner gives the value as 1.293.

TABLE 25
ADIABATIC VALUES OF
 k FOR AIR OBTAINED
BY VARIOUS EX-
PERIMENTERS

Experimenter	Value
La Place	1.403
Dulong	1.421
Wullner at 32°	1.4053
" at 212°	1.4029
Clement	1.356
Masson	1.419
Hirn	1.384
Weisbach	1.402
Cazin	1.410
Rontgen	1.405
Lummer and Pringsheim	1.4015

TABLE 26
ADIABATIC VALUES OF k FOR AN ILLUMINATING GAS

I Constituents	II Per Cent Weight	III Wt. of 1 cu. ft. lb.	IV Wt. in 1 cu. ft. of This Gas, lb.	V Ratio $\frac{kp}{kr}$	VI IV \times V
CO ₂	2.40	0.12267	0.00295	1.293	0.00381
C ₂ H ₄	9.00	0.07909	0.00703	1.210	0.00851
O	0.50	0.08921	0.00045	1.418	0.000635
CO	31.00	0.07407	0.02420	1.408	0.0341
H	35.20	0.00559	0.00197	1.412	0.00278
CH ₄	18.50	0.04464	0.00827	1.270	0.01050
N	3.40	0.07831	0.00236	1.408	0.00375
Total			0.04753		0.06409

$$k = \frac{0.06409}{0.04753} = 1.349$$

APPENDIX 2

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLANT

APPENDIX 2

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLANT

APPARATUS USED

The engine used for the tests given in Part I is of the Corliss type, and is a part of the equipment of the Mechanical Engineering Laboratory of the University of Illinois. The plant comprises the engine and various auxiliaries which are used in connection with the engine. These auxiliaries consist of a throttle valve in the steam-pipe line, an independently fired superheater, a direct current generator with a water rheostat, a surface condenser, scales, and a tank. The instruments used consist of indicators, steam pressure gauges, thermometers, ammeters, a voltmeter, and a continuous revolution counter.

The general arrangement of the plant, with the exception of the superheater and the steam piping, was the same for both saturated and superheater steam tests. Steam was obtained from the main boiler plant of the University, located about 150 ft. away from the engine. Two pipe lines, one of 6-in. pipe for saturated steam and the other of 4-in. pipe for superheated steam, traverse the laboratory, and each is connected to the steam pipe of the engine tested.

The steam exhausts from the engine through 30 ft. of 5-in. pipe to the condenser, where the exhaust steam is condensed, and is then weighed in a large tank on a platform scales. The engine is connected by a belt to the generator, which furnishes the load. This generator is loaded upon a water rheostat located close by.

1. *The Engine.*—The engine is a small well-designed Corliss engine of a standard type built for heavy duty service. Its principal dimensions are given in Table 27. A view of the right side of the engine is shown in Fig. 31, and a view of the left side is given in Fig. 32.

The cylinder is not steam-jacketed on the ends, but is partly jacketed on the barrel by the steam chest, the latter covering about one-sixth of the barrel surface. The exhaust passages are separated from the lower part of the cylinder barrel by a dead air space formed in cylinder casting. The cylinder is shown in section in Fig. 34.

The engine is fitted with separate eccentrics for actuating the exhaust and the steam valves, thus enabling the steam valve gear to cut-off up to about 50% of the length of the stroke. The two separate eccentrics and the two wrist plates are well shown in Fig. 31.

TABLE 27
PRINCIPAL DIMENSIONS OF CORLISS ENGINE

1. Type—Horizontal single-cylinder, double eccentric, non-condensing, variable speed, heavy duty frame, Reynolds Corliss Engine.	
2. Class—Belt drive for mill work.	
3. Maker—Allis Chalmers Co., Milwaukee, Wisconsin	
4. Rated Power of Engine—100 h. p. at 115 lb. initial pressure above atmosphere on indicator diagram, $\frac{1}{4}$ cut-off, and 120 r. p. m.	
5. Cylinder dimensions:—	
(a) Bore (measured while hot).....	12.02 in.
(b) Stroke.....	24.00 in.
(c) Diameter of piston rod.....	2 $\frac{1}{8}$ in.
6. Clearance—in per cent of volume displaced by piston per stroke	
(a) Head end.....	7.89 per cent
(b) Crank end.....	7.04 per cent
7. Speed—Controlled by fly-ball governor with variable gear ratio between main shaft and governor, giving any engine speed from 20 to 160 r. p. m. Usual speed 120 r. p. m.	

(a) *Speed Control.*—The speed of the engine is controlled by a fly-ball governor acting on the cut-off cams of the steam valve gear. Variable speed is obtained by varying the gear ratio between the main shaft and the governor. This gear ratio change is accomplished by the mechanism shown to the left of the fly-wheel in Fig. 31. The mechanism is operated as follows: The belt from the main shaft drives the concave disc to the left which is loose on the shaft; this disc drives by friction three fiber rimmed idlers which are mounted between two discs on frames supported by a stationary frame in a manner which permits the plane of the idlers with respect to the shaft to be changed; the concave disc to the right is friction-driven by the three idlers and is keyed to the shaft which is connected through bevel gears to the governor. The discs are kept in contact with the idlers by an end thrust provided by a helical spring (surrounding the shaft) which is located between the right disc and the out-board bearing; the left disc is loose on the shaft but works against a collar formed by the sleeve carrying the shaft; the spring, therefore, acting against the out-board bearing, forces the right disc against the idlers and the left disc against its collar. The hand wheel shown in the figure, by a gear and sector device not shown, changes the plane of the idlers with respect to the shaft, and therefore changes the

gear ratio between the two discs. This device permits any speed from 20 to 160 r. p. m. to be obtained. A leakage test of all valves and the piston, the engine being at rest, showed that these parts were fairly tight.

2. *The Superheater.*—The superheater is of the Foster separately-fired type, and is rated at 200° F. of superheat for a flow of 4500 lb. of steam per hour. The draft is induced by an engine-driven fan.

3. *The Condenser.*—The condenser is of the Worthington surface type having 362 sq. ft. of condensing surface. Two pumps are provided; one a Worthington circulating pump drawing its water from a creek about 40 ft. away, the other, a Blake wet air pump, discharging into a tank on a platform scales. Tests at frequent intervals showed that the condenser was practically without leakage.

4. *The Generator and Water Rheostat.*—The engine was loaded on a generator and water rheostat shown in Fig. 33. This generator is of the Edison bi-polar type, and is rated at 100 kw. at 140 volts, thus giving a full load current of 715 amperes. The field was separately excited for the tests, the current being obtained from the laboratory 220-volt direct current supply.

Fig. 33 shows the arrangement of the loading part of the plant. The generator output was conducted through cables in the conduit shown to the main switch on the switch-board; here connections were made to the plates of the water rheostat. Voltmeter and ammeter connections are made on the back of the switchboard. The table shown to the right of Fig. 33 contains the voltmeter and millivoltmeter for the main load current, and the field ammeter and rheostat for controlling the voltage. The water rheostat consists of three water-tight wooden barrels, each containing two iron plates, one positive and one negative. The connections of all the barrels are in parallel. Referring to Fig. 33, and describing only one barrel, a plate connected to the negative terminal is placed on the bottom of the barrel; the positive terminal is connected through the looped wire, shown to the front, to a movable plate suspended by a rope from the long shaft hung under the frame carrying the conductors. This long shaft is turned by means of the handwheel and worm devices shown. The rope holding the upper plate is tied through a hole in the shaft, so that when the shaft is turned, the rope is wound up, or vice versa, as desired. The desired load as shown by the millivoltmeter is obtained by regulating the distance between the plates and by throw-

ing salt in the water to obtain the desired resistance. An overflow from the top of each barrel is provided at the back, so that when the water boils, cold water is admitted so that the heat is carried away in the overflow water instead of by the boiling of the water. All the upper plates are lowered simultaneously by means of a long shaft. An almost absolutely constant load is maintained by this rheostat.

5. *The Instruments.*—The various instruments used were carefully calibrated.

INDICATORS

The indicators and the indicator rig are shown in positions in Fig. 32. Two Crosby inside spring indicators in very good condition were used for the tests. The pipe connections consist of 5 inches of $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. pipe for each indicator. The reducing motion is a wooden pantagraph mounted as shown. The lost motion in the indicator rig was less than .01 in.

Great care was observed in the indicator work, since the indicator diagrams themselves formed the basis of the results to be obtained. The pistons were oiled at intervals of about one hour. The springs were calibrated by steam in the indicators used, by a Cooley fluid scales tester, using a method which duplicated almost exactly the conditions under which the indicators were used during the tests.

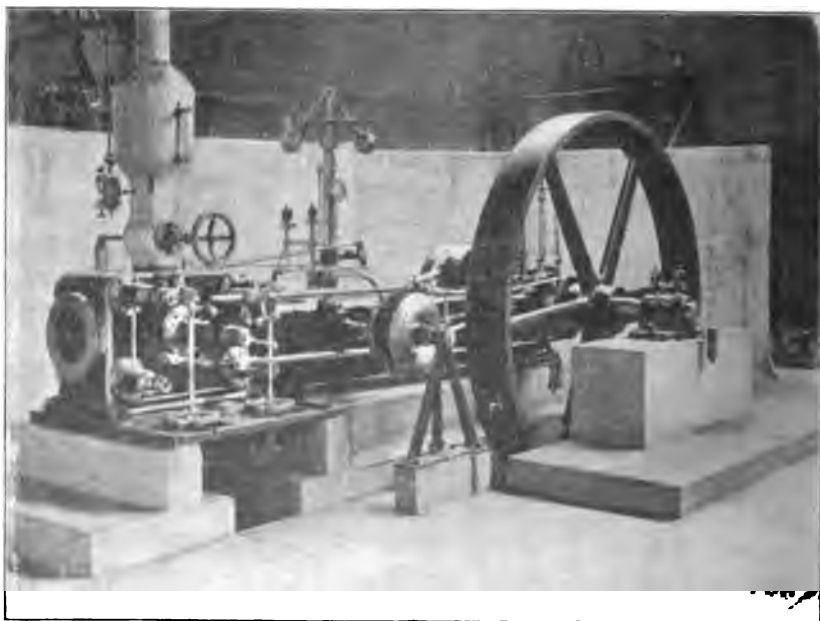


FIG. 31.

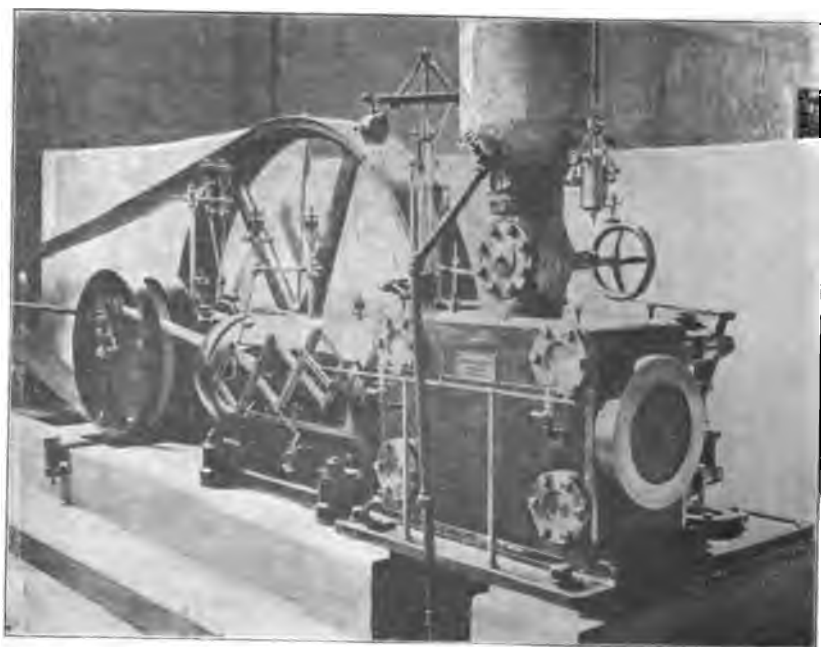


FIG. 32.

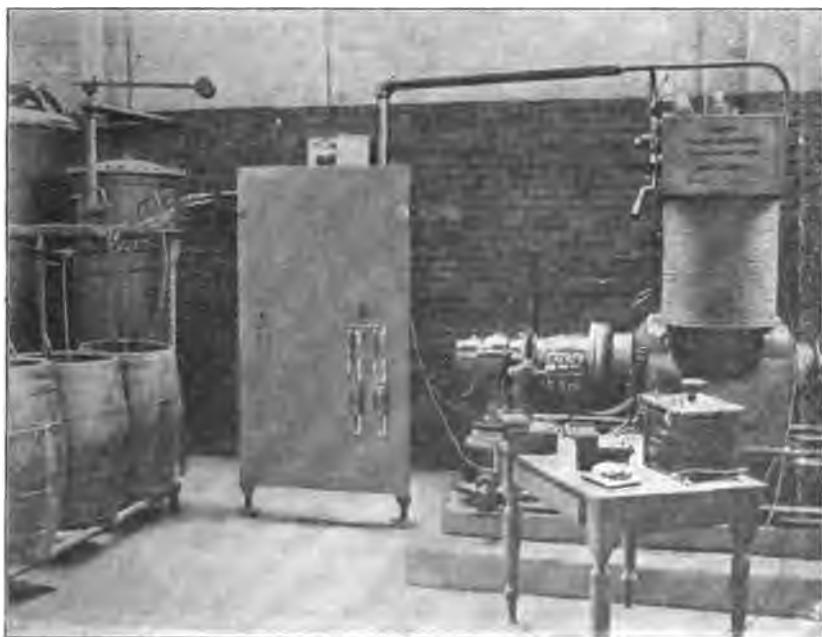


FIG. 33.

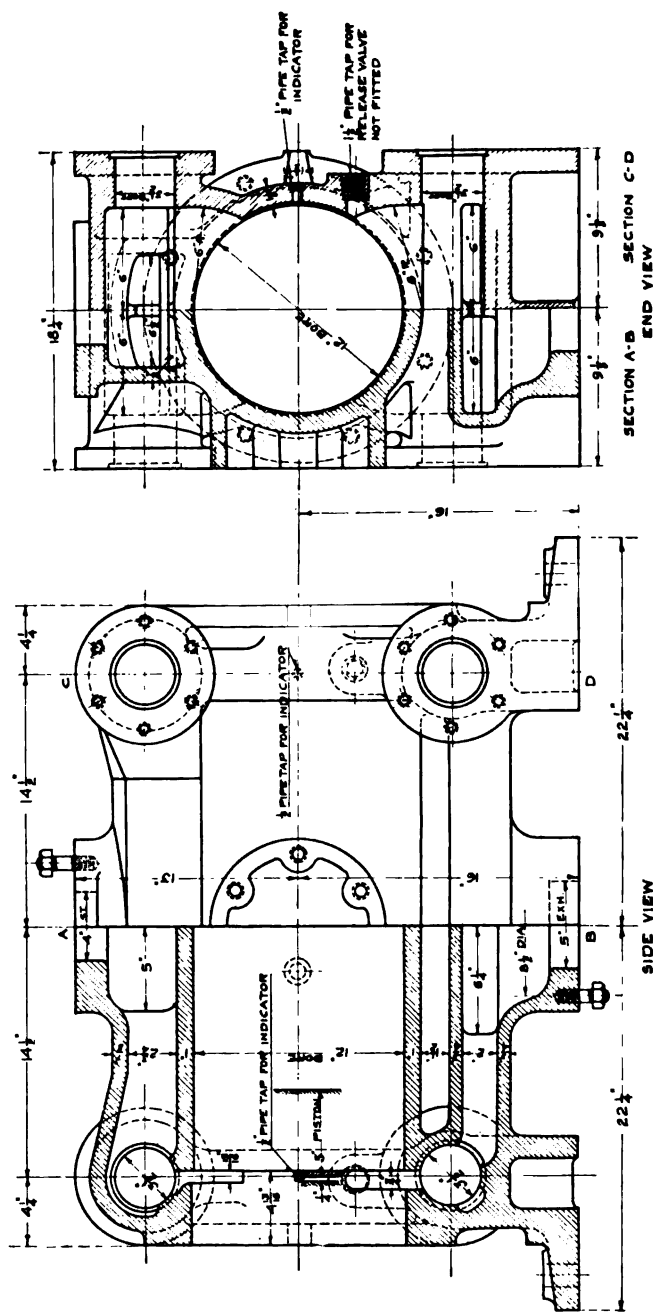


FIG. 34. SECTIONAL VIEWS OF CYLINDER OF 18-IN. X 24-IN. CORLISS ENGINE

APPENDIX 3

TEST METHODS

APPENDIX 3

TEST METHODS

1. *Preliminary.*—The object of the investigation given in Part 1 was to examine the values and relations of the exponent n obtained from the expansion curve of the indicator diagrams under different conditions of pressure, speed, and cut-off. The effect of changing one of these variables was studied while keeping the other two constant. The method of testing was planned therefore with a view to maintaining the conditions of pressure, speed, and cut-off as constant as was possible during any one test.

2. *Length of Tests.*—Tests may be very short when a surface condenser is used and constant conditions are maintained. Prior to running a test, the engine was operated for about one hour. It was found that after the operating conditions for one test had been maintained constant for ten minutes that the steam condensed per unit of time was almost exactly constant. After the conditions had become constant, it was found that 30 minutes of operation gave a length of test which produced trustworthy and consistent results. All observations and diagrams were taken every three minutes in response to a signal given on the even minute. Six observers were required to maintain the desired conditions of load, pressure, superheat, and to take the readings.

3. *Control of Steam Pressure and Temperature.*—The steam pressure was closely controlled by an observer, who throttled the steam in the main, before it reached the engine, to the pressure desired as shown by a gauge at the valve. Ordinarily this pressure was maintained to within three pounds of the pressure desired. It was decided to keep the steam temperature for the superheated steam tests constant at 500° F. at the superheater. The superheater was operated by an observer who was guided by the indication of a thermometer placed in the pipe carrying the steam leaving the superheater. Ordinarily, the temperature of the steam was kept within the limits of 490° to 510° F. The temperature variation at the steam chest of the engine did not exceed 2° or 3° F. during one test. The load was kept to within about 1 per cent variation from the average load during one test. A back pressure of about $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. above the atmosphere was maintained at the engine by keeping the vacuum at the condenser at 1.5 in. of mercury, this vacuum being controlled by an observer who regulated an air leakage valve on the condenser.

4. *Plan of Tests.*—The testing crew became expert in control-

ling the conditions so that the variations from constant conditions were remarkably small for test work. When the conditions of one test varied for any reason more than the amounts given, this test was not used for the purposes of the investigation.

The tests were designated in the laboratory by a symbol indicating the conditions to be maintained. Thus, test 500°-100-52-120 indicated that the steam was to be superheated to 500° F. at the superheater; that 100 lb. gauge pressure was to be maintained at the engine throttle; and 52 kw. load was to be put on the generator; and that the speed was adjusted to be 120 r. p. m, measured at no load.

5. *Data for Test 52.*—All the readings to Test 52 (500° 100-52-120) are given in Table 28. A study of these readings shows the constancy of conditions that was attained.

METHOD OF SELECTING ONE SET OF INDICATOR DIAGRAMS TO REPRESENT THE AVERAGE CONDITIONS OF ONE TEST

After a test was run, the constancy of the conditions of pressure, superheat, load, the number of revolutions and the weight of the condensate for each 3-min. reading was examined. If the variations of these conditions were within the limits selected, the test was worked up in the usual manner. It was generally found that the area of each of the indicator diagrams for each end of the cylinder was within 3 per cent of the mean area. The gauge pressure for each reading at which the diagrams were taken was found in general to vary less than 3 lb. from the average. To represent the average conditions of one test, the simultaneous combination of a gauge pressure reading nearest to the average and of one set of diagrams which had an area nearest to the mean area, was sought. This combination gave one set of diagrams, taken at the average pressure, which represented the average area of all the diagrams. This mean combination condition could generally be satisfied to within $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent of the average area.

The value of the average quality of the steam mixture present in the cylinder at cut-off, and the average value of n for both expansion curves were obtained from this set of diagrams (transferred to the logarithmic form) selected as representative average conditions. The unit of measurement of both quality and n was therefore the revolution.

The manner of selecting the representative diagrams is illus-

TABLE 28
ORIGINAL DATA (CORRECTED) OF TEST 52 (500°-100-52-120)

No. of Reading	Time of Reading	Gauge Pressure		Temperatures, Deg. F.										Area of Indicator Diagrams sq. in.		Revolution Counter		Weight of Condensate lb.		Load on Generator		Field Amperes
		In Steam Main at Throttling Valve	lb. per sq. in.	Room			Steam			Water		Head End	Crank End	Reading	Difference per 3 min.	Gross	Difference per 3 min.	Volts	Amperes			
				In Throttling Calorimeter	After leaving Superheater	Before Engine Throttle Valve	In Steam Chest of Engine	Condensing	In Out	Condensate												
1	2:20	99.5	97.1	1.5	66.0	380	501	453	384	42	66	72	2.87	3.17	65801	495	106	123	435	10.10		
2	2:22	99.5	96.1	1.5	66.0	381	497	453	383	42	67	74	2.79	3.14	66109	601	106	124	435	10.00		
3	2:26	99.5	96.1	1.5	66.0	381	499	454	384	42	67	74	2.78	3.04	66422	706	105	125	425	9.95		
4	2:29	98.5	94.1	1.5	66.0	382	497	454	384	42	68	74	2.67	3.10	66735	818	102	122	415	10.00		
5	2:32	99.5	96.1	1.5	66.0	383	501	454	384	43	68	74	2.69	3.01	67046	911	103	122	421	9.95		
6	2:35	100.5	96.1	1.5	66.0	383	497	454.5	383	43	69	74	2.67	2.98	67359	1013	109	118	435	8.65		
7	2:38	101.5	97.1	1.5	66.0	383	495	454	384	43	69	74	2.71	3.11	67669	1116	103	122	425	9.58		
8	2:41	98.5	90.1	1.5	66.0	383	497	454	383.5	42	72	74	2.65	2.94	67983	1220	104	122	418	9.40		
9	2:44	98.5	94.1	1.5	66.0	381	503	454	382	52	78	75	2.60	3.05	68306	1325	105	123	418	9.70		
10	2:47	99.5	95.1	1.5	66.0	382	493	454.5	385	54	79	77	2.72	3.09	68607	1428	103	123	415	10.05		
11	2:50	98.5	96.1	1.5	66.0	382	497	454	386	57	80	80	2.61	2.98	68921	1531	103	124	405	10.00		
Total	30 min.	1003.5	1046.1	16.5	726.0	4801	5477	4938.0	4222.5	508	778	823	32.98	33.61	3180	1086	1036	1348	4034	106.98		
Average	3 min.	99.4	96.1	1.5	66.0	381.9	497.9	453.9	383.9	46.0	70.7	74.8	2.714	3.055	6840	2072	103.6	122.5	400.4	9.72		
Per hr.																						
Per min.																				104.00		

Barometer reading 14.4 lb. per sq. in. absolute.
*Indicator diagrams selected from this reading.

trated in Table 28. The areas of the diagrams are given in columns 14 and 15. The pair taken at 2:44, the time of reading No. 9, was chosen. The steam pressure for this reading is 99.5 lb. at the throttling valve, while the average is 99.4 lb. The pressure at the engine throttle was 94.1 lb., while the average was 95.1 lb. This last pressure, 94.1 lb., was always read some time after the signal for readings, while the pressure at the throttling valve was always read at the time of the signal.

The area of the crank-end diagram of the pair selected is 2.70 sq. in., while the average is 2.714 sq. in.; the area of the head-end diagram is 3.05 sq. in., while the average is 3.055 sq. in. The crank-end diagram is 0.5 per cent lower in area than the average; the head-end diagram is 0.2 per cent lower than the average; both of them considered together are 0.35 per cent below the average. This figure, 0.35, may be taken to show the average difference, and shows that no material error is introduced by this method.

6. *Methods of Computation.*—The manner of computing the value of x_c and n is given for test 30, the representative indicator diagrams of which are given in Fig. 15, and the logarithmic diagrams in Fig. 9. The results of the computations for all tests are given in Tables 1 and 2.

The absolute pressure of cut-off was determined from the indicator diagrams at a point located by inspection, as was also the per cent of cut-off, the latter, however, not being involved in this investigation. The cut-off pressures for all the tests constituting one group were averaged and this average was used to obtain all values of x_c for one group. Test 30 belongs to group G, comprising series 6 and 14, and the average absolute pressure at cut-off was 129.0 lb.

The logarithmic diagrams of test 30, shown in Fig. 9, are the basis of the calculations for the value of x_c . The calculations which follow are given in detail in the same form as they were made for all tests.

COMPUTATION FOR THE VALUES OF x_c AND n FOR TEST 30. (VOLUMES OBTAINED FROM FIG. 9.)

Steam present at cut-off pressure of 129.0 lb. absolute
 Volume of steam present, head end0.482 cu. ft.
 Volume of steam present, crank end.....0.478 cu. ft.
 Total, head and crank end0.960 cu. ft.

Specific volume¹ of steam at 129.0 lb. absolute = 3.478 cu. ft. per lb.

¹Marks and Davis Steam Tables.

Weight of steam present at cut-off $\frac{0.960}{3.478} = 0.2760$ lb.

Steam regained in compression at 15.0 lb. absolute

Volume of steam present, head end.....0.350 cu. ft.

Volume of steam present, crank end0.322 cu. ft.

Total, head and crank ends.0.672 cu. ft.

Specific volume of steam at 15.0 lb. absolute = 26.27 cu. ft. per lb.

Weight of steam retained in compression $\frac{0.672}{26.27} = 0.0256$ lb.

From Table 1, the weight of steam and water supplied = 2796 lb. per hour

Revolutions per hour.....6840

Pounds of steam and water supplied per revolution = $\frac{2796}{6840} = 0.4087$ lb.

Total weight of mixture present per revolution

0.4087 lb. supplied

0.0256 lb. retained in compression

0.4343 lb. total present

$$x_c = \frac{0.2760}{0.4343} = 0.635, \text{ or } 63.5\% \text{ present as steam.}$$

Value of n from point 0, Fig. 9.

Head end Length $OX = 1.575$ in.

$OY = 1.56$ in.

$$n, \text{ head end} = \frac{1.575}{1.56} = 1.010$$

$$\text{Similarly, } n, \text{ crank end} = \frac{1.535}{1.525} = 1.006$$

$$\text{Average value of } n = 1.008$$

When the actual cut-off pressure was less than 129.0 lb., the line of constant weight of steam mixture on the logarithmic diagram was extended to this pressure, and the calculations made.

7. *Compression Steam.*—The point of compression was selected in the following manner from Fig. 9 for the reasons explained fully on page 49. The straight line of the compression curve on the logarithmic diagram, or the line of constant weight of steam mixture, was prolonged dotted as shown to the back pressure. In these tests the average back pressure was about 15.0 lb., and this back pressure was used to calculate all steam retained in compression. The intersection of the compression line, prolonged, with the back pressure line (15.0 lb.), extended, was taken as the volume of dry steam retained in compression. This method generally gives less steam retained than the ordinary method.

APPENDIX 4

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APPENDIX 4

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS BULLETIN

Vol. IX

MAY 27, 1912

No. 29

[Entered Feb. 14, 1908, at Urbana, Ill., as second-class matter under Act of Congress of July 16, 1894]

BULLETIN NO. 59

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

THE EFFECTS OF COLD WEATHER UPON TRAIN RESISTANCE AND TONNAGE RATING

BY

EDWARD C. SCHMIDT

AND

F. W. MARQUIS



UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

URBANA, ILLINOIS

PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY

PRICE: TWENTY CENTS

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

BULLETIN No. 59

MAY, 1912

THE EFFECTS OF COLD WEATHER UPON TRAIN
RESISTANCE AND TONNAGE RATING

BY EDWARD C. SCHMIDT, PROFESSOR OF RAILWAY ENGINEERING AND
F. W. MARQUIS, ASSOCIATE IN RAILWAY ENGINEERING

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THE EFFECTS OF COLD WEATHER UPON TRAIN RESISTANCE AND TONNAGE RATING

I. INTRODUCTION

The resistance offered by railway trains is greater in cold weather than it is under ordinary summer temperatures. Evidence of this fact will occur to all who are concerned with train operation, and its recognition has led to the practice of reducing tonnage ratings of locomotives during cold weather. This practice is almost universal among the railroads operating in the northern part of the United States and in Canada. On the few roads, running in this territory, which do not reduce ratings during cold weather, it seems probable that the ordinary summer ratings are lower than they might well be and that consequently the locomotives have a reserve tractive effort great enough to permit them to handle these same ratings throughout the winter months.

Any method of tonnage rating should recognize the three important variables which modify train resistance, viz., speed, average weight of the cars, and air temperature. The influence of speed is quite generally allowed for in establishing ratings and it is becoming more and more customary to make distinctions in rating on account of differences in car weight. The influence of the third variable, air temperature, may be as great as that of either speed or car weight, and it is proper that it should have received as general consideration in establishing winter ratings as has been accorded.

Recognizing the importance of the subject, the Railway Engineering department of the University of Illinois, two years ago, undertook tests to determine the increase in train resistance due to cold weather, and this work is still in progress. It is hoped that it may result eventually in information sufficiently specific to indicate the law according to which train resistance* and air temperature are related, and thereby to enable the reductions in rating for different air temperatures to be determined with greater certainty than is now possible; for, as will appear later, there is at present considerable diversity of practice concerning such tonnage reductions. These tests are still far from being

*Throughout the paper, train resistance means the force needed to keep the train moving at uniform speed on straight, level track and in still air. This force is expressed in pounds per ton of train weight.

completed and the data in hand do not yet warrant definite conclusions. The work has, however, gone far enough to develop some rather interesting results and it is the purpose here to present this evidence and also to present a summary of the current practice of American railroads in reducing tonnage ratings during cold weather.

The material here presented was first published in substantially the same form in the Proceedings of the Central Railway Club for January, 1912, and is reproduced by permission. The tests referred to were made possible by the courtesy of the officers of the Illinois Central Railroad.

Before presenting the experimental results, it may be helpful to examine the ways in which low air temperatures may affect tonnage rating. In establishing a rating, the purpose is to equate locomotive tractive effort and the total resistance of the train, i. e., to determine a train whose gross resistance shall equal the available tractive effort. Anything, therefore, which decreases tractive effort or which increases resistance will necessitate a reduction in rating. A drop in air temperature does both these things. Cold weather decreases tractive effort by decreasing the capacity of the locomotive boiler. This it does in two ways—first, by increasing the amount of heat lost by radiation, and second, by lowering the temperature of combustion. At low speed the reduction in boiler capacity by increased radiation probably does not amount to more than two or three per cent even in very cold weather. The decrease in combustion temperature must be so small as to be negligible in its effects on steam production. Some slight decrease in the efficiency of the performance within the cylinders probably also ensues in cold weather, but data do not exist to enable us to evaluate this effect. Cold weather further decreases tractive effort by increasing the machine friction in all the locomotive bearings. Since, however, the total machine friction is itself not generally more than eight or ten per cent, when maximum tractive effort is being developed, it is apparent that even considerable variations in this friction cannot greatly affect tractive effort. Taking all these facts into consideration, it seems likely that cold weather does not greatly reduce the tractive effort of locomotives, and that, consequently, it does not necessitate radical reductions in rating in so far as its effect upon the locomotive itself is concerned. Probably a reduction in rating of four or five per cent, even with air temperatures as low as 0°F.,

is sufficient to allow for the reduced tractive effort of the locomotive.

The influence of cold weather in increasing total train resistance is, however, greater than its influence on tractive effort. Under the conditions prevailing at ruling grades, total train resistance is made up of net resistance as above defined, together with resistances due to grade, to acceleration, and to curvature. Of these four elements of resistance only the first—the net resistance on straight level track at uniform speed—is at all affected by temperature. At the speeds at which freight trains pass ruling grades, this net resistance is composed almost entirely of those resistances which develop at the wheel tread and the resistance developed in the car journals. The former we shall call rolling resistance and the latter journal resistance. When the temperature of the air falls below the freezing point, the moisture in the road bed freezes and the whole track structure becomes less yielding. It seems reasonable to expect that under these conditions the rolling resistance will be different from what it is in summer weather. Whether it is greater or smaller does not appear, although there are some reasons for supposing it to be less on “frozen track.” Whether it is greater or smaller need not concern us here, for it is altogether likely that at the speeds prevailing at ruling grades this rolling resistance is much less than the other element of resistance, viz., the journal friction. It is in journal friction, therefore, that we must seek for the explanation of the effect which cold weather is known to produce upon train resistance and consequently upon tonnage rating.

A brief review of the actions within the car journal may serve to make clearer the way in which temperature affects the journal resistance. In the journals of a car which has been standing, the oil film has been broken through and the journal and brass are probably in direct contact. The temperature of the oil and of all the bearing parts is the same as that of the air, and the lower this temperature, the more viscous is the oil. As the car starts and the journal turns, oil is brought up from the waste below and the film of oil begins to establish itself. Until this oil film is established over the whole journal, the friction is high and gives rise to the great starting resistances which prevail at this time. As the journal continues to turn, the oil and all bearing parts begin to warm up, due to the heat devel-

oped by the bearing friction. As the temperature increases, the viscosity of the oil diminishes and the resistance decreases. The temperature of the bearing continues to increase until the rate of heat production within the bearing equals the rate at which the heat is dissipated from the box and other parts, such as the axle. At this point, the bearing temperature becomes constant and the resistance reaches its minimum value and here remains. This dissipation of heat is accomplished by the air moving over the box and axle, and the rate of heat dissipation varies almost directly with the amount of the difference between the temperature of the bearing and the temperature of the surrounding air. To maintain a certain rate of dissipation of heat the *journal* temperature may be lower therefore in cold weather than in warm weather, the temperature of equilibrium attained by the journal is consequently lower in cold weather than in warm weather, and the minimum viscosity of the oil is greater. On these accounts we are prepared to find that the minimum resistance attained in cold weather is greater than in warm weather.

These statements are exemplified by the following record of journal temperatures obtained by the use of the University of Illinois dynamometer car:*

Test number.....	1094	2007
Average air temperature—degrees F	63	9
Approximate average test speed—m. p. h.....	16	15
Maximum temperature attained by test car journal— degrees F	116	98

These tests differ chiefly in the air temperature. In the test on the colder day the temperature of equilibrium attained by the journal is 18° less than that attained on the warmer day.

In another series of tests in which the journal temperature was measured, the resulting average maximum journal temperatures attained during the tests were about 125°, 137° and 145° for constantly maintained speeds of 10, 20 and 30 miles per hour, respectively. In this case the temperature is derived from a journal of one of the cars in the test train. This car weighed 101,000 lb. and was equipped with 5 in. by 9 in. journals. The air temperature during these tests varied from 62° to 90°. These values serve to show the temperatures attained in a heavily loaded journal and also to show the influence of speed on these temperatures. .

*This car is equipped with a recording thermometer, the bulb of which is inserted in a hole drilled in the body of one of the journal brasses. This instrument makes a continuous record of journal temperature. The car weighs 58,000 lb., and is equipped with 4½ in. by 8 in. journals

II. RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTS

Two years ago the Railway Engineering department of the University of Illinois completed a series of tests* to determine the influence of car weight on resistance. These tests were intended to show only the resistance prevailing in summer weather in order that they might serve as a basis for normal or "summer ratings." Tests made during cold weather have therefore been eliminated from the results. These results are here presented as Fig. 1 merely to offer a basis of comparison. In deriving the curves of Fig. 1 it was necessary to produce for each test such a curve as is shown in Fig. 2 in which the relation between speed and resistance is indicated. Fig. 2 shows the values for resistance at various speeds for test 1027 made in July, 1908, during which the air temperature varied from 64° to 80°. In such a diagram a definite relation between resistance and speed is obvious and no difficulty was experienced in drawing a curve to represent fairly this relation. In these respects Fig. 2 is quite characteristic of the entire series of 32 tests which led to the conclusions embodied in Fig. 1. It should be borne in mind that these tests were made in warm weather.

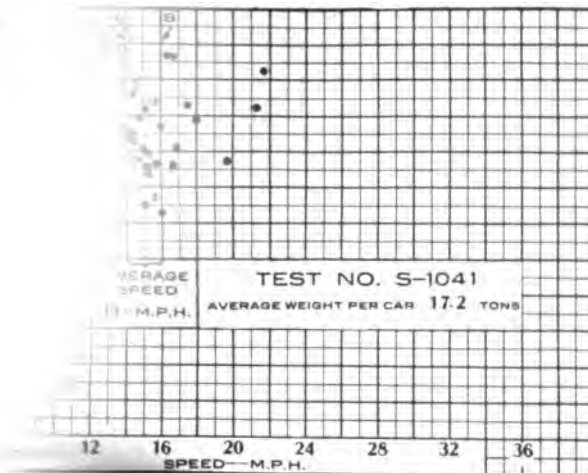
As the tests progressed, however, and cold weather was encountered, the plotted values of resistance and speed exhibited no such obvious relation. Fig. 3 shows the resistances at various speeds obtained from test 1041, the first test made in cold weather. This test was made on October 31, 1908 and the air temperature varied from 30° at the beginning to 42° at the end of the test. If there is a definite relation between resistance and speed for this test, Fig. 3 certainly does not disclose it and it would require considerable hardihood to try to draw a curve for the points there shown. The attempt to discover a reason for the discordance among resistance values disclosed in Fig. 3 by a comparison of the conditions prevailing in test 1041 with the conditions of the preceding tests, made it clear that this test differed chiefly in being run during cold weather. The explanation was sought in this fact.

In Fig. 3 the resistance values, for speeds in the neighborhood of 15 miles per hour, vary from 8.9 to 12.6 lb. per ton, and similar variations occur at other speeds. If cold weather causes these variations, it does so through its influence on journal temperature. It was conceived, therefore, that the variations were

*Freight Train Resistance: Bulletin 43 of the Engineering Experiment Station of the University of Illinois.



RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST
NO. S-1027. TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 64° AT THE BEGINNING TO 80°
AT THE END OF THE TEST



RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST
NO. S-1041. TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 30° AT THE BEGINNING TO 42°
AT THE END OF THE TEST

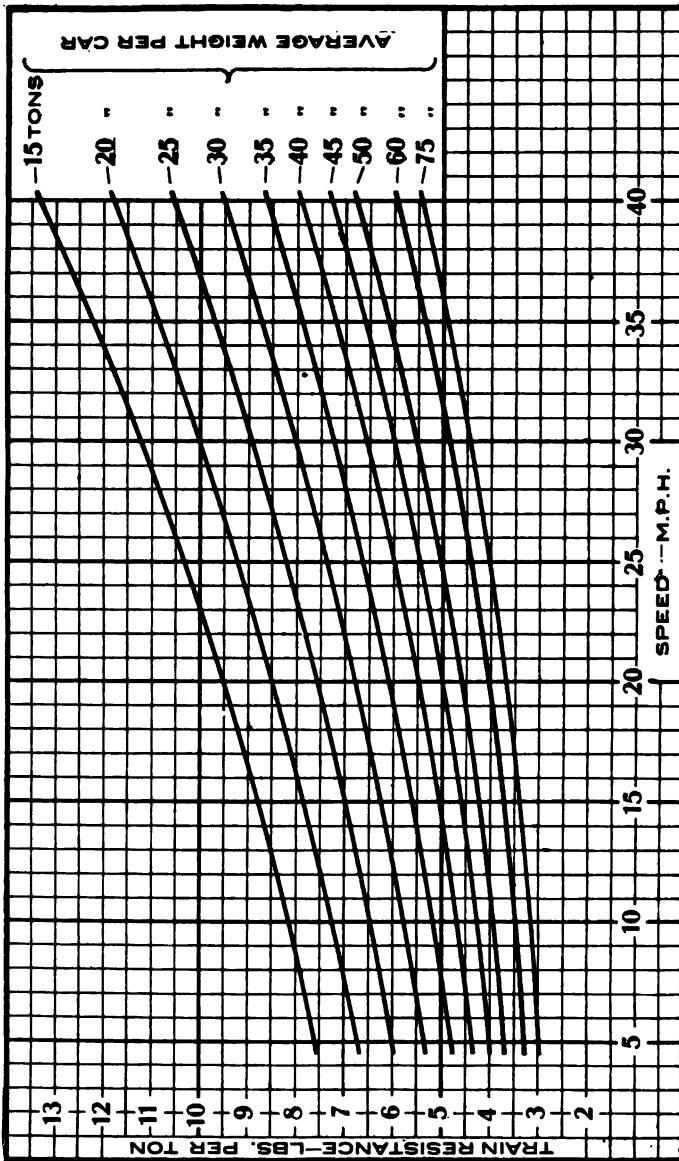


FIG. 1. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN TRAIN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TRAINS COMPOSED OF CARS OF VARIOUS AVERAGE WEIGHTS—APPLICABLE IN SUMMER TEMPERATURES ONLY

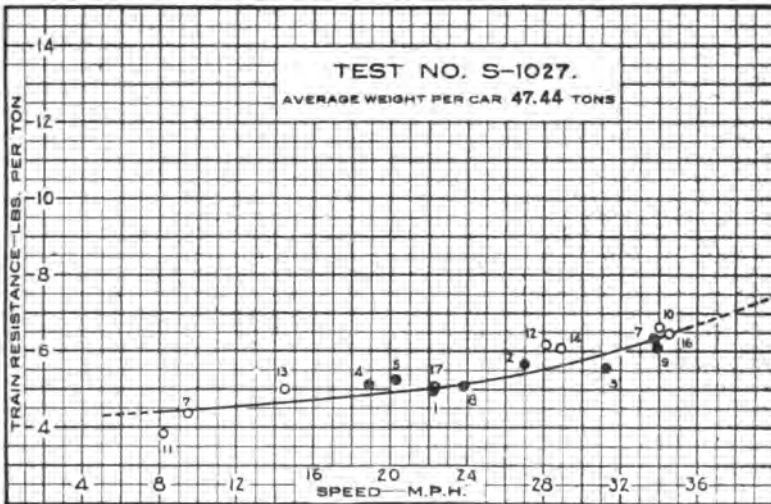


FIG. 2. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1027—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 64° AT THE BEGINNING TO 80° AT THE END OF THE TEST

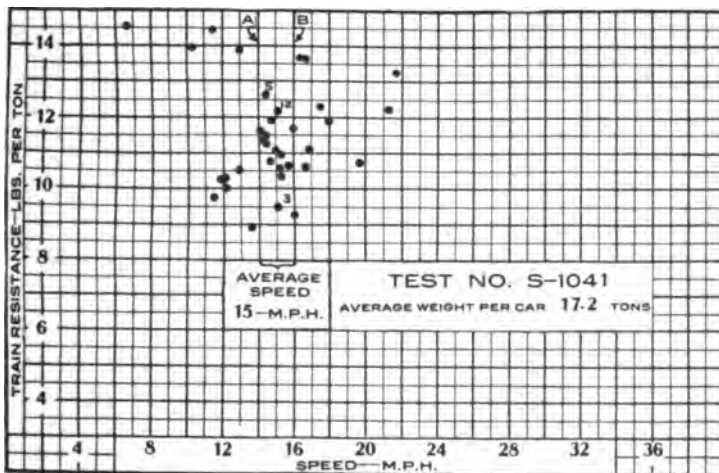


FIG. 3. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1041—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 30° AT THE BEGINNING TO 42° AT THE END OF THE TEST

due to differences in journal temperature, and that these differences were, in their turn, due to the fact that most of the points* in Fig. 3 applied to the period during which the journals were warming up. In other words, it was assumed that cold weather had unusually delayed in this test the time at which the temperature of equilibrium of the journal became established.

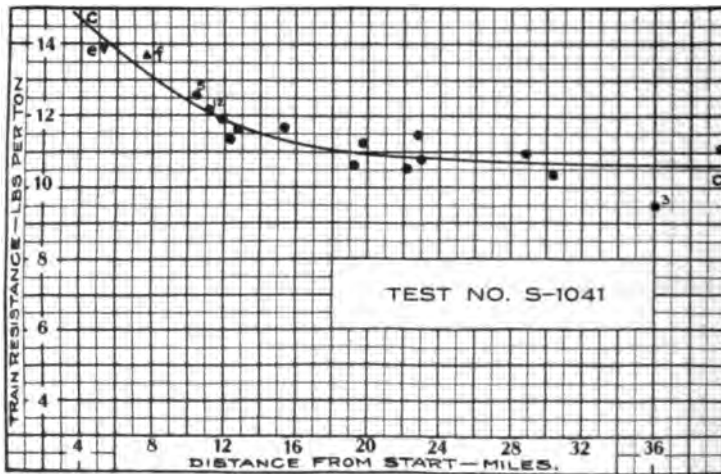


FIG. 4. SHOWING THE DECREASE IN RESISTANCE AS THE TRAIN OF TEST 1041 PROGRESSES. THE RESISTANCES APPLY TO A SPEED OF ABOUT 15 MILES PER HOUR

If these assumptions are correct, it might be expected that a diagram showing the resistance values and the corresponding journal temperatures would disclose their intimate relation. No record of journal temperature was available at this time and it was consequently impossible to produce such a diagram. If, however, the journal temperature was varying, it must have been increasing as the train moved further and further from the starting point, and it was concluded that if, for each point on the road at which resistance had been determined, its value were plotted with respect to the distance of that point from the beginning of the run, such a plot would reveal a regular variation of resistance with distance due to the influence of distance upon

*Each point in this and succeeding diagrams represents the resistance value applying to a particular position of the train upon the road. It may define the momentary resistance as the train passes a particular point, or it may define the average resistance during the time the train passes a short track section.

journal temperature. It was hoped that such a diagram would offer an explanation of the discordance among the values shown in Fig. 3. This assumption was tested in the following manner:

On Fig. 3 the two lines A and B were drawn embracing all points whose speed values lie between 14 and 16 miles per hour. All points lying within the belt defined by lines A and B pertain, therefore, to speeds which are not far from 15 miles per hour. The resistance values of the points lying within this zone were next plotted as Fig. 4, in which vertical distances again denote resistance, and horizontal distances represent miles run from the starting point. The points which in zone AB of Fig. 3 have the highest resistance values are found in Fig. 4 near the beginning of the run, whereas those having the lowest resistance values fall at the end of the run, and in general the points* in

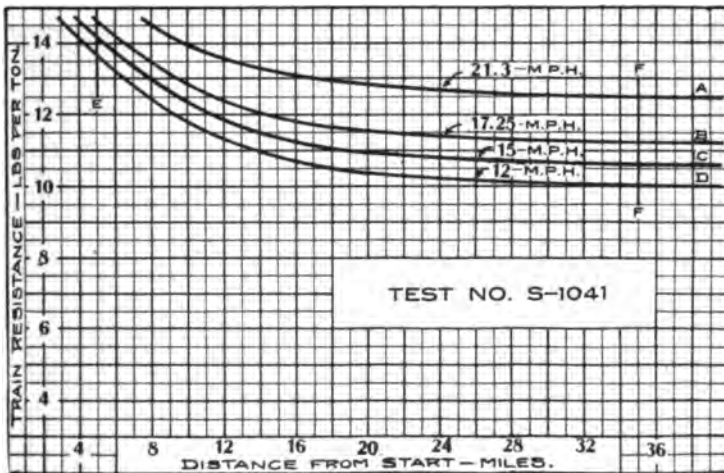


FIG. 5. SHOWING THE DECREASE IN RESISTANCE AS THE TRAIN OF TEST 1041 PROGRESSES—THE CURVES APPLY TO FOUR DIFFERENT SPEEDS

Fig 4 so arranged themselves that their resistance values constantly decrease as the distance increases. A few of the points in Fig. 4 are numbered. These numbers in Fig. 3 denote the corresponding points. Bearing in mind the facts that all values apply to the same train and to approximately the same speed, it

*Points e and f in Fig. 4 do not lie within zone AB; but, since they correspond to speeds not far from 15 miles per hour, (13.0 and 16.7 m.p.h. respectively) they are there plotted in order to fill out the exhibit for the first 10 miles.

is apparent that neither variations in car weight nor variations in speed can account for the regular decrease in resistance shown in Fig. 4. This decrease must therefore be due to the only remaining variable which exerts any important influence upon resistance, viz., journal temperature. It is therefore assumed that in Fig. 4 the regular decrease in resistance as the train progresses is due to the fact that the journal temperatures are constantly increasing and that oil viscosity and journal resistance are therefore diminishing. This assumption underlies the further discussion of this and of the following figures. The test conditions* make it difficult to directly measure the temperature of the journals in the train and the results are therefore presented in terms of distance run by the test train. The journal temperatures are intimately related to this distance unless the test is run under widely varying speeds.

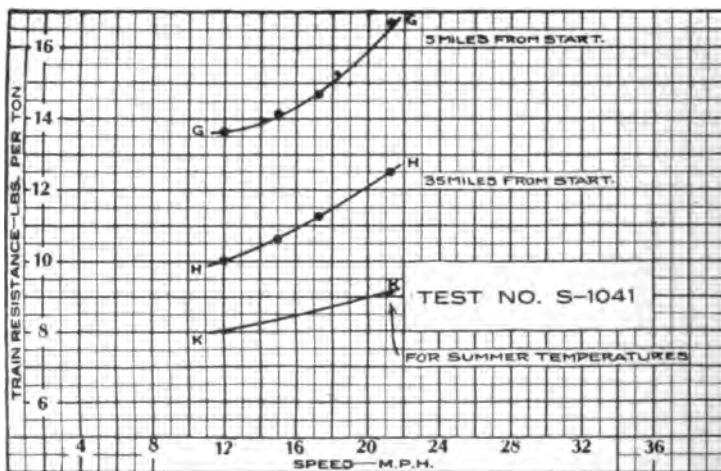


FIG. 6. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1041 AT 5 MILES AND AT 35 MILES FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE RUN

The curve CC drawn in Fig. 4 represents approximately the rate at which resistance changes with distance run, and it applies to a speed of about 15 miles per hour. It is apparent from this curve that the resistance at the beginning of the run is about 14 lb. per ton at this speed and that it constantly decreases until the train has progressed about 35 miles, at which point the

*The trains tested are freight trains of the Illinois Central Railroad, accepted as they come in the regular service. It has not proved feasible, thus far, to directly measure the temperature of any of the journals of the cars composing these trains.

resistance reaches its minimum value of about 10.5 lb. per ton and the journal temperature reaches its maximum. Trains of like character when run at similar speeds in warm weather reach their minimum resistance within the first eight or ten miles of their run, and their minimum resistance is less than that attained in the train whose performance is exhibited in Fig. 4.

Fig. 5 also shows for this same test (1041) the decrease in resistance as the train progresses. The curve C there shown is reproduced from Fig. 4, and the additional curves A, B and D there drawn were derived by a process similar to that just explained in the discussion of Fig. 4. The curves A, B, C and D denote the approximate resistance for speeds of 21.3, 17.3, 15 and 12 miles per hour, respectively. All four curves show that the minimum resistance is reached at about 35 miles from the beginning of the run. For widely different speeds this distance would be different. Fig. 5 offers a means whereby we may determine the relation between resistance and speed at different points in the run. This relation is found in the following manner. On Fig. 5 the lines EE and FF are drawn, intersecting all four curves at points corresponding respectively to 5 and 35 miles from the start. The points at which the line FF cuts curves A, B, C and D determine four resistance values which correspond respectively to speeds 21.3, 17.3, 15 and 12 miles per hour. These corresponding values of resistance and speed constitute the co-ordinates of the four points shown on the curve H of Fig. 6 and serve to define this curve. The values corresponding to the intersections of the line EE with the four curves of Fig. 5 serve similarly to define the curve G of Fig. 6. In Fig. 6 vertical distances represent resistance and horizontal distances represent speed, the curves G, and H represent, therefore, the variations of resistance with speed for test 1041, and present train resistance curves in their usual form. The curve G shows the resistance at about 5 miles from the beginning of the run, when the journals are still cold. The curve H shows the resistance at 35 miles from the beginning when the journals have attained their maximum temperature. Fig. 6 presents the same information as is embodied in Fig. 5; but in a more familiar form. It should be recalled that Fig. 6 applies to a test made when the air temperature varied from 30° to 42° and when the wind was light. The train was composed of cars weighing, on the average, 17.2 tons.

In order to compare the resistance shown by curves G and H

completed and the data in hand do not yet warrant definite conclusions. The work has, however, gone far enough to develop some rather interesting results and it is the purpose here to present this evidence and also to present a summary of the current practice of American railroads in reducing tonnage ratings during cold weather.

The material here presented was first published in substantially the same form in the Proceedings of the Central Railway Club for January, 1912, and is reproduced by permission. The tests referred to were made possible by the courtesy of the officers of the Illinois Central Railroad.

Before presenting the experimental results, it may be helpful to examine the ways in which low air temperatures may affect tonnage rating. In establishing a rating, the purpose is to equate locomotive tractive effort and the total resistance of the train, i. e., to determine a train whose gross resistance shall equal the available tractive effort. Anything, therefore, which decreases tractive effort or which increases resistance will necessitate a reduction in rating. A drop in air temperature does both these things. Cold weather decreases tractive effort by decreasing the capacity of the locomotive boiler. This it does in two ways—first, by increasing the amount of heat lost by radiation, and second, by lowering the temperature of combustion. At low speed the reduction in boiler capacity by increased radiation probably does not amount to more than two or three per cent even in very cold weather. The decrease in combustion temperature must be so small as to be negligible in its effects on steam production. Some slight decrease in the efficiency of the performance within the cylinders probably also ensues in cold weather, but data do not exist to enable us to evaluate this effect. Cold weather further decreases tractive effort by increasing the machine friction in all the locomotive bearings. Since, however, the total machine friction is itself not generally more than eight or ten per cent, when maximum tractive effort is being developed, it is apparent that even considerable variations in this friction cannot greatly affect tractive effort. Taking all these facts into consideration, it seems likely that cold weather does not greatly reduce the tractive effort of locomotives, and that, consequently, it does not necessitate radical reductions in rating in so far as its effect upon the locomotive itself is concerned. Probably a reduction in rating of four or five per cent, even with air temperatures as low as 0°F.,

is sufficient to allow for the reduced tractive effort of the locomotive.

The influence of cold weather in increasing total train resistance is, however, greater than its influence on tractive effort. Under the conditions prevailing at ruling grades, total train resistance is made up of net resistance as above defined, together with resistances due to grade, to acceleration, and to curvature. Of these four elements of resistance only the first—the net resistance on straight level track at uniform speed—is at all affected by temperature. At the speeds at which freight trains pass ruling grades, this net resistance is composed almost entirely of those resistances which develop at the wheel tread and the resistance developed in the car journals. The former we shall call rolling resistance and the latter journal resistance. When the temperature of the air falls below the freezing point, the moisture in the road bed freezes and the whole track structure becomes less yielding. It seems reasonable to expect that under these conditions the rolling resistance will be different from what it is in summer weather. Whether it is greater or smaller does not appear, although there are some reasons for supposing it to be less on "frozen track." Whether it is greater or smaller need not concern us here, for it is altogether likely that at the speeds prevailing at ruling grades this rolling resistance is much less than the other element of resistance, viz., the journal friction. It is in journal friction, therefore, that we must seek for the explanation of the effect which cold weather is known to produce upon train resistance and consequently upon tonnage rating.

A brief review of the actions within the car journal may serve to make clearer the way in which temperature affects the journal resistance. In the journals of a car which has been standing, the oil film has been broken through and the journal and brass are probably in direct contact. The temperature of the oil and of all the bearing parts is the same as that of the air, and the lower this temperature, the more viscous is the oil. As the car starts and the journal turns, oil is brought up from the waste below and the film of oil begins to establish itself. Until this oil film is established over the whole journal, the friction is high and gives rise to the great starting resistances which prevail at this time. As the journal continues to turn, the oil and all bearing parts begin to warm up, due to the heat devel-

oped by the bearing friction. As the temperature increases, the viscosity of the oil diminishes and the resistance decreases. The temperature of the bearing continues to increase until the rate of heat production within the bearing equals the rate at which the heat is dissipated from the box and other parts, such as the axle. At this point, the bearing temperature becomes constant and the resistance reaches its minimum value and here remains. This dissipation of heat is accomplished by the air moving over the box and axle, and the rate of heat dissipation varies almost directly with the amount of the difference between the temperature of the bearing and the temperature of the surrounding air. To maintain a certain rate of dissipation of heat the *journal* temperature may be lower therefore in cold weather than in warm weather, the temperature of equilibrium attained by the journal is consequently lower in cold weather than in warm weather, and the minimum viscosity of the oil is greater. On these accounts we are prepared to find that the minimum resistance attained in cold weather is greater than in warm weather.

These statements are exemplified by the following record of journal temperatures obtained by the use of the University of Illinois dynamometer car:*

Test number.....	1094	2007
Average air temperature—degrees F	63	9
Approximate average test speed—m. p. h.....	16	15
Maximum temperature attained by test car journal— degrees F	116	98

These tests differ chiefly in the air temperature. In the test on the colder day the temperature of equilibrium attained by the journal is 18° less than that attained on the warmer day.

In another series of tests in which the journal temperature was measured, the resulting average maximum journal temperatures attained during the tests were about 125°, 137° and 145° for constantly maintained speeds of 10, 20 and 30 miles per hour, respectively. In this case the temperature is derived from a journal of one of the cars in the test train. This car weighed 101,000 lb. and was equipped with 5 in. by 9 in. journals. The air temperature during these tests varied from 62° to 90°. These values serve to show the temperatures attained in a heavily loaded journal and also to show the influence of speed on these temperatures. .

*This car is equipped with a recording thermometer, the bulb of which is inserted in a hole drilled in the body of one of the journal brasses. This instrument makes a continuous record of journal temperature. The car weighs 58,000 lb., and is equipped with 4¼ in. by 8 in. journals

II. RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTS

Two years ago the Railway Engineering department of the University of Illinois completed a series of tests* to determine the influence of car weight on resistance. These tests were intended to show only the resistance prevailing in summer weather in order that they might serve as a basis for normal or "summer ratings." Tests made during cold weather have therefore been eliminated from the results. These results are here presented as Fig. 1 merely to offer a basis of comparison. In deriving the curves of Fig. 1 it was necessary to produce for each test such a curve as is shown in Fig. 2 in which the relation between speed and resistance is indicated. Fig. 2 shows the values for resistance at various speeds for test 1027 made in July, 1908, during which the air temperature varied from 64° to 80°. In such a diagram a definite relation between resistance and speed is obvious and no difficulty was experienced in drawing a curve to represent fairly this relation. In these respects Fig. 2 is quite characteristic of the entire series of 32 tests which led to the conclusions embodied in Fig. 1. It should be borne in mind that these tests were made in warm weather.

As the tests progressed, however, and cold weather was encountered, the plotted values of resistance and speed exhibited no such obvious relation. Fig. 3 shows the resistances at various speeds obtained from test 1041, the first test made in cold weather. This test was made on October 31, 1908 and the air temperature varied from 30° at the beginning to 42° at the end of the test. If there is a definite relation between resistance and speed for this test, Fig. 3 certainly does not disclose it and it would require considerable hardihood to try to draw a curve for the points there shown. The attempt to discover a reason for the discordance among resistance values disclosed in Fig. 3 by a comparison of the conditions prevailing in test 1041 with the conditions of the preceding tests, made it clear that this test differed chiefly in being run during cold weather. The explanation was sought in this fact.

In Fig. 3 the resistance values, for speeds in the neighborhood of 15 miles per hour, vary from 8.9 to 12.6 lb. per ton, and similar variations occur at other speeds. If cold weather causes these variations, it does so through its influence on journal temperature. It was conceived, therefore, that the variations were

*Freight Train Resistance: Bulletin 43 of the Engineering Experiment Station of the University of Illinois.

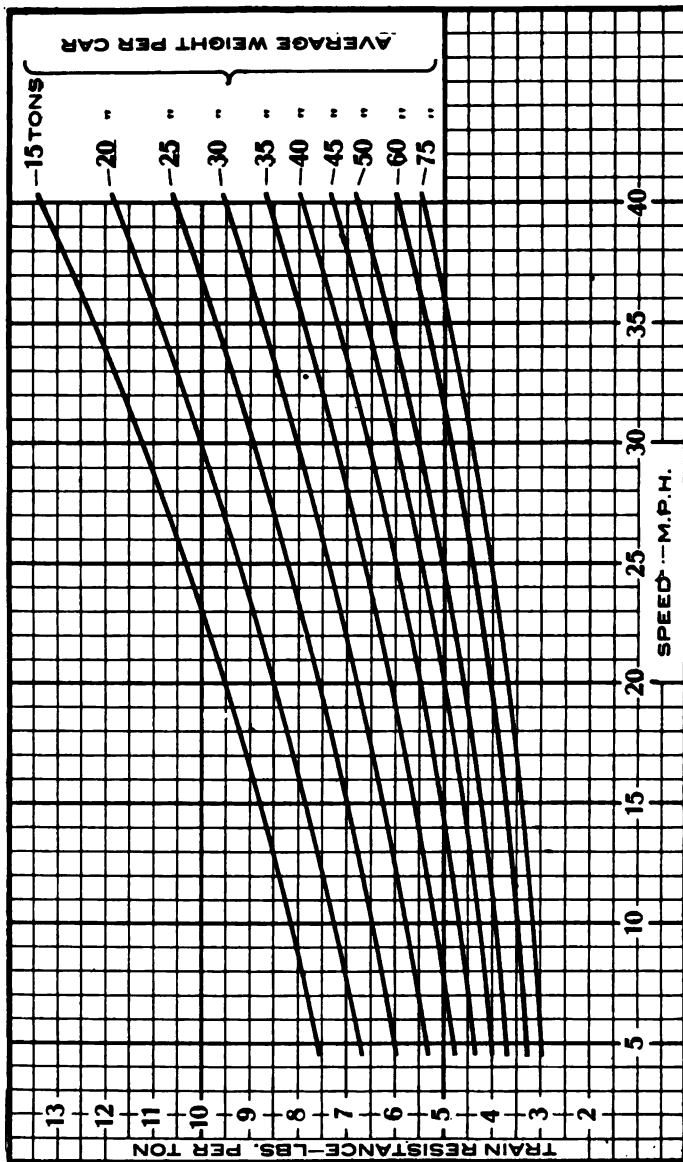


FIG. 1. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN TRAIN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TRAINS COMPOSED OF CARS OF VARIOUS AVERAGE WEIGHTS—APPLICABLE IN SUMMER TEMPERATURES ONLY

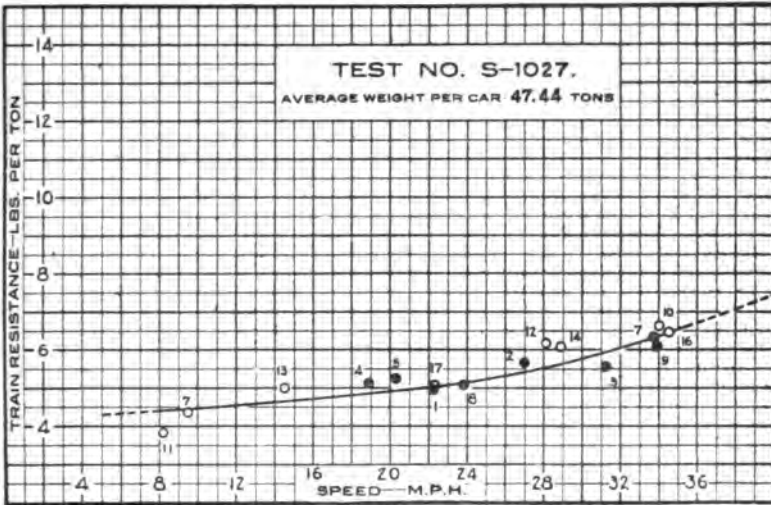


FIG. 2. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1027—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 64° AT THE BEGINNING TO 80° AT THE END OF THE TEST

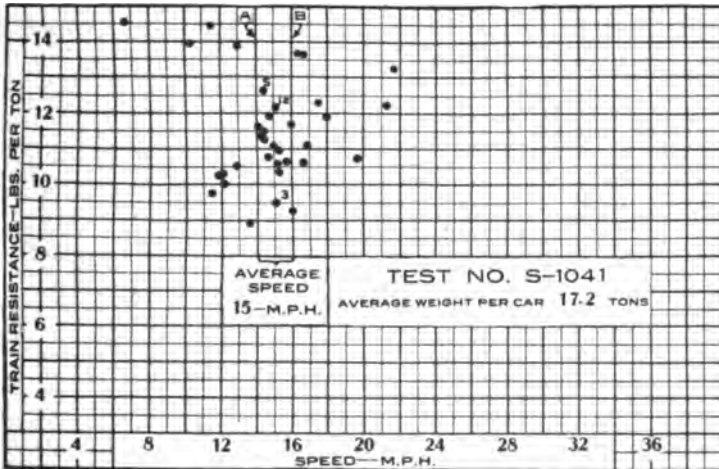


FIG. 3. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1041—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 30° AT THE BEGINNING TO 42° AT THE END OF THE TEST

due to differences in journal temperature, and that these differences were, in their turn, due to the fact that most of the points* in Fig. 3 applied to the period during which the journals were warming up. In other words, it was assumed that cold weather had unusually delayed in this test the time at which the temperature of equilibrium of the journal became established.

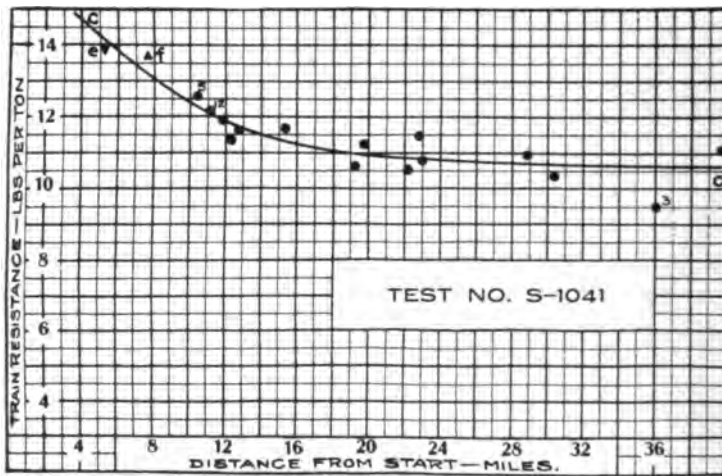


FIG. 4. SHOWING THE DECREASE IN RESISTANCE AS THE TRAIN OF TEST 1041 PROGRESSES. THE RESISTANCES APPLY TO A SPEED OF ABOUT 15 MILES PER HOUR

If these assumptions are correct, it might be expected that a diagram showing the resistance values and the corresponding journal temperatures would disclose their intimate relation. No record of journal temperature was available at this time and it was consequently impossible to produce such a diagram. If, however, the journal temperature was varying, it must have been increasing as the train moved further and further from the starting point, and it was concluded that if, for each point on the road at which resistance had been determined, its value were plotted with respect to the distance of that point from the beginning of the run, such a plot would reveal a regular variation of resistance with distance due to the influence of distance upon

*Each point in this and succeeding diagrams represents the resistance value applying to a particular position of the train upon the road. It may define the momentary resistance as the train passes a particular point, or it may define the average resistance during the time the train passes a short track section.

journal temperature. It was hoped that such a diagram would offer an explanation of the discordance among the values shown in Fig. 3. This assumption was tested in the following manner:

On Fig. 3 the two lines A and B were drawn embracing all points whose speed values lie between 14 and 16 miles per hour. All points lying within the belt defined by lines A and B pertain, therefore, to speeds which are not far from 15 miles per hour. The resistance values of the points lying within this zone were next plotted as Fig. 4, in which vertical distances again denote resistance, and horizontal distances represent miles run from the starting point. The points which in zone AB of Fig. 3 have the highest resistance values are found in Fig. 4 near the beginning of the run, whereas those having the lowest resistance values fall at the end of the run, and in general the points* in

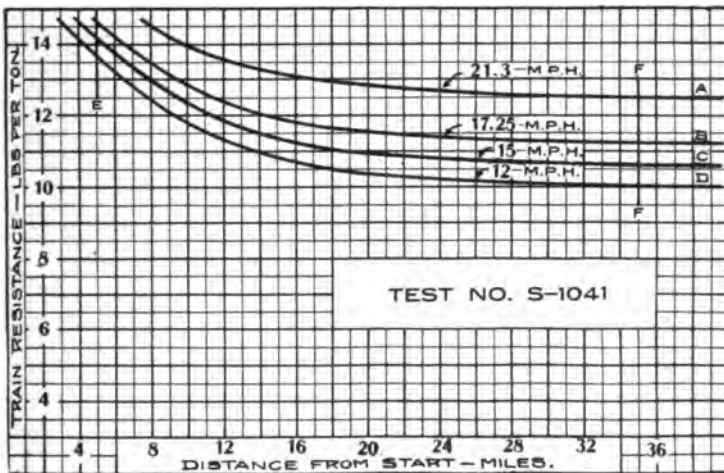


FIG. 5. SHOWING THE DECREASE IN RESISTANCE AS THE TRAIN OF TEST 1041 PROGRESSES—THE CURVES APPLY TO FOUR DIFFERENT SPEEDS

Fig 4 so arranged themselves that their resistance values constantly decrease as the distance increases. A few of the points in Fig. 4 are numbered. These numbers in Fig. 3 denote the corresponding points. Bearing in mind the facts that all values apply to the same train and to approximately the same speed, it

*Points e and f in Fig. 4 do not lie within zone AB; but, since they correspond to speeds not far from 15 miles per hour, (13.0 and 16.7 m.p.h. respectively) they are there plotted in order to fill out the exhibit for the first 10 miles.

is apparent that neither variations in car weight nor variations in speed can account for the regular decrease in resistance shown in Fig. 4. This decrease must therefore be due to the only remaining variable which exerts any important influence upon resistance, viz., journal temperature. It is therefore assumed that in Fig. 4 the regular decrease in resistance as the train progresses is due to the fact that the journal temperatures are constantly increasing and that oil viscosity and journal resistance are therefore diminishing. This assumption underlies the further discussion of this and of the following figures. The test conditions* make it difficult to directly measure the temperature of the journals in the train and the results are therefore presented in terms of distance run by the test train. The journal temperatures are intimately related to this distance unless the test is run under widely varying speeds.

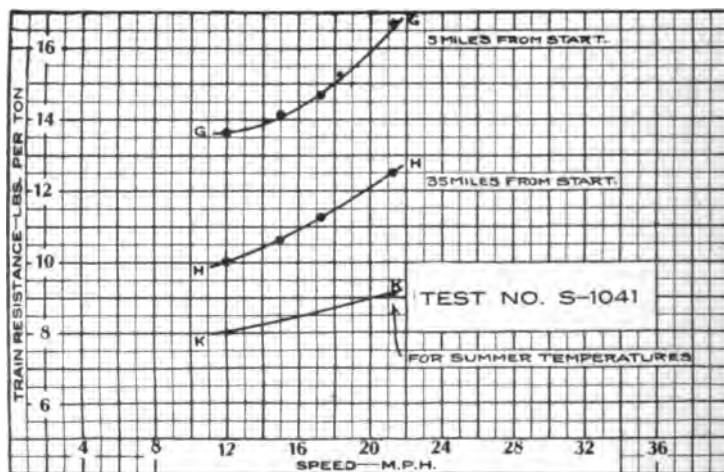


FIG. 6. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1041 AT 5 MILES AND AT 35 MILES FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE RUN

The curve CC drawn in Fig. 4 represents approximately the rate at which resistance changes with distance run, and it applies to a speed of about 15 miles per hour. It is apparent from this curve that the resistance at the beginning of the run is about 14 lb. per ton at this speed and that it constantly decreases until the train has progressed about 35 miles, at which point the

*The trains tested are freight trains of the Illinois Central Railroad, accepted as they come in the regular service. It has not proved feasible, thus far, to directly measure the temperature of any of the journals of the cars composing these trains.

resistance reaches its minimum value of about 10.5 lb. per ton and the journal temperature reaches its maximum. Trains of like character when run at similar speeds in warm weather reach their minimum resistance within the first eight or ten miles of their run, and their minimum resistance is less than that attained in the train whose performance is exhibited in Fig. 4.

Fig. 5 also shows for this same test (1041) the decrease in resistance as the train progresses. The curve C there shown is reproduced from Fig. 4, and the additional curves A, B and D there drawn were derived by a process similar to that just explained in the discussion of Fig. 4. The curves A, B, C and D denote the approximate resistance for speeds of 21.3, 17.3, 15 and 12 miles per hour, respectively. All four curves show that the minimum resistance is reached at about 35 miles from the beginning of the run. For widely different speeds this distance would be different. Fig. 5 offers a means whereby we may determine the relation between resistance and speed at different points in the run. This relation is found in the following manner. On Fig. 5 the lines EE and FF are drawn, intersecting all four curves at points corresponding respectively to 5 and 35 miles from the start. The points at which the line FF cuts curves A, B, C and D determine four resistance values which correspond respectively to speeds 21.3, 17.3, 15 and 12 miles per hour. These corresponding values of resistance and speed constitute the co-ordinates of the four points shown on the curve H of Fig. 6 and serve to define this curve. The values corresponding to the intersections of the line EE with the four curves of Fig. 5 serve similarly to define the curve G of Fig. 6. In Fig. 6 vertical distances represent resistance and horizontal distances represent speed, the curves G, and H represent, therefore, the variations of resistance with speed for test 1041, and present train resistance curves in their usual form. The curve G shows the resistance at about 5 miles from the beginning of the run, when the journals are still cold. The curve H shows the resistance at 35 miles from the beginning when the journals have attained their maximum temperature. Fig. 6 presents the same information as is embodied in Fig. 5; but in a more familiar form. It should be recalled that Fig. 6 applies to a test made when the air temperature varied from 30° to 42° and when the wind was light. The train was composed of cars weighing, on the average, 17.2 tons.

In order to compare the resistance shown by curves G and H

with the resistance prevailing in warm weather, the curve K is drawn in Fig. 6. This curve is derived from Fig. 4 and shows the approximate resistance in summer weather of a train composed of cars weighing 17.2 tons. Curve K is therefore comparable with either G or H. Curve H represents resistances which are approximately 25 to 30 per cent greater than those represented by curve K and we may conclude that for the train of test 1041 even the minimum resistance attained after the train had run 35 miles is about 25 per cent greater than the resistance of a similar train in warm weather. Whether the change from summer temperatures to a temperature of 30° will always result in an increase of 25 per cent in the resistance does not appear, and the data in hand do not as yet warrant generalizations of this sort. Attention is again called to the fact that the term resistance as here used means resistance on level track, and consequently a difference of 25 per cent in resistance does not necessarily require a difference of 25 per cent in tonnage rating. This statement is developed beyond.

Fig. 3 to 6 constitute what is perhaps unneeded evidence of the effect of low air temperature upon train resistance and upon tonnage rating. They show a way in which quantitative expression may be given to this effect. These four figures also serve to show the methods employed in the study of this problem which is now in progress at the University of Illinois. When this work has progressed far enough to cover all ordinary ranges of air temperature and all ordinary car weights, it may result in information which will enable tonnage reductions to be determined more systematically than seems now to be possible. It may be of interest to present a few additional diagrams touching one or two other phases of the subject.

Fig. 7 and 8 are similar to Fig. 3 and 4 and they lead to similar conclusions. Fig. 7 and 8 apply to test 1045 during which the air temperature varied from 22° to 26° , and for which the train was composed of cars averaging 49.2 tons in weight. In Fig. 7 the resistance values are plotted with respect to speed and the same difficulty of discovering any relation between resistance and speed presents itself as was presented in Fig. 3. When, however, these resistance values are plotted with respect to distance from the beginning of the run, as they are in Fig. 8, they arrange themselves in a more orderly way. All the points of Fig. 7 are plotted in Fig. 8. Points 8, 9 and

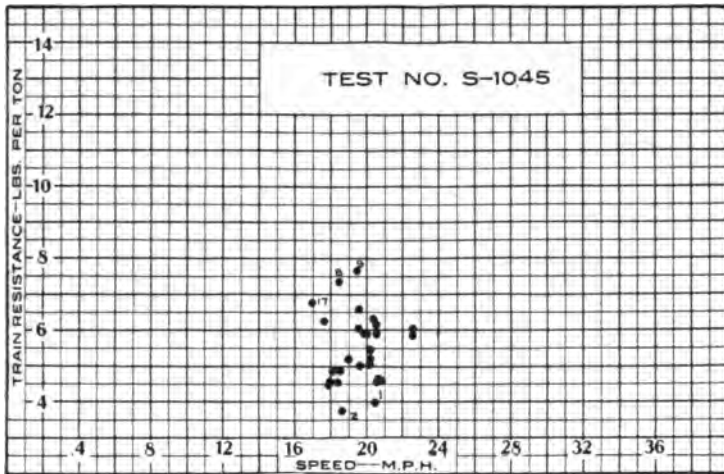


FIG. 7. SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1045—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 23° AT THE BEGINNING TO 26° AT THE END OF THE TEST

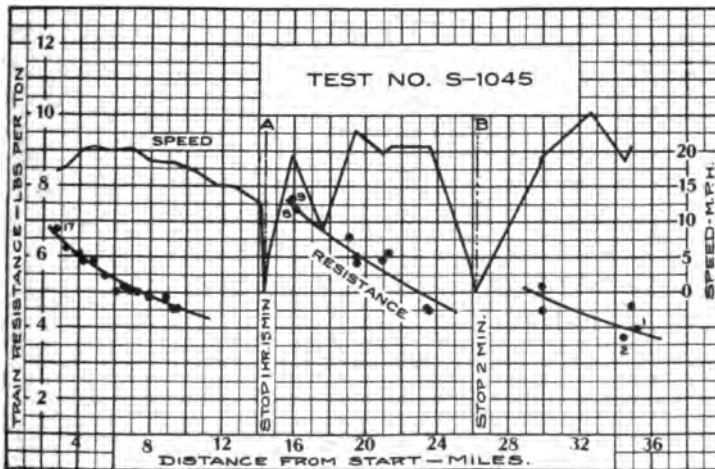


FIG. 8. SHOWING THE DECREASE IN RESISTANCE AS THE TRAIN OF TEST 1045 PROGRESSES, AND THE INFLUENCE OF STOPS UPON RESISTANCE

17, which in Fig. 7 correspond to the highest values of resistance, fall in Fig. 8 either at the beginning of the run or immediately beyond the stop at A; whereas points 1 and 2 which have the lowest resistance values fall at the end of the run. In Fig. 8 the speed during the run is indicated by the line in the upper part of the diagram. It will be noticed that the train was brought up to a speed of about 20 miles per hour within the first three miles of the run and that the speed was thereafter maintained at approximately 20 miles, except in the immediate neighborhood of the two stops which are indicated at A and B. The speed for all but four of the points for which resistance is calculated lies between 18 and 24 miles per hour, and the speeds for these four points lie close to this range. Since the speed is so nearly uniform for all these points, its influence in modifying resistance is practically eliminated, and such changes in resistance as are indicated on the diagram are chiefly due to changes in journal temperature. At point A about 14 miles from the start the train was stopped for one hour and fifteen minutes, the air temperature at that time being 23°. Again at B, 12 miles farther along, a stop of two minutes' duration was made. It is interesting to note the effect of these stops upon the resistance. The resistance in the beginning is in the neighborhood of seven pounds per ton. It steadily decreases as the train progresses, until at the point A, where the train was first detained, it had fallen to about four or four and one-half pounds. Upon leaving A the train's speed was immediately raised to its general value of 20 miles per hour and the resistance is found to have risen again to about the same value which it had at the original starting point. From there on, the resistance again decreases steadily until the point B is reached, after which there is a slight increase in resistance due, probably, not so much to the two-minute stop as to the cooling of the journals during the considerably longer period in which the speed at this point was low, while the train was approaching and leaving B. The diagram serves well to show how important the effect of such a stop as that at A may be. If the ruling grade in this case had occurred just beyond A, it is entirely likely that the increased train resistance would have stalled the train at that point. There is no evidence in this diagram that the minimum resistance of this train at this speed is reached during the test. Indeed, if the resistance curves there drawn are accepted as correct, it seems clear that

the stops have delayed the establishment of this minimum resistance beyond the test limits. Comparison with resistance in warm weather is therefore unwarranted.

During test 1084, the results of which are presented in Fig. 9, the air temperature varied from 1° below zero at the beginning to 5° above zero at the end of the test. These temperatures are lower than any others prevailing during the tests here discussed, and Fig. 9 is introduced primarily on that account. It exhibits the same facts as may be derived from Fig. 4 and 8 and needs but little additional comment. The speed during this test was increased from 8 miles per hour near the start to 20 miles per hour at the point A, beyond which it was maintained almost uniform at 20 miles per hour. The resistance values derived for the first 10 miles of the run are not numerous enough to offer much information. Between A and B, however, the points are more numerous and indicate clearly the usual decrease in resistance as the train progresses. The resistance, which at A is 20 pounds per ton, has decreased at B—24 miles from the start—to about 16 pounds per ton, and probably it would have continued to decrease had the test been continued beyond this point. The normal resistance in summer weather for a train of this car weight (16.5 tons), as derived from Fig. 1, is 9.5 pounds per ton. The train of this test has, therefore, a resistance 68 per cent in excess

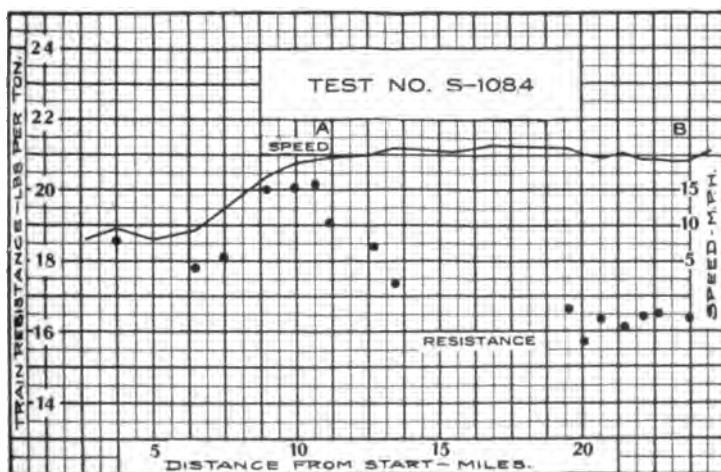


FIG. 9. SHOWING THE DECREASE IN RESISTANCE AS THE TRAIN OF TEST 1084 PROGRESSES—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 1° BELOW TO 5° ABOVE ZERO

of the normal, even after running 24 miles. Part of this excess is doubtless due to the fact that a strong wind prevailed during the test; most of it, however, is probably due to low temperature.

Fig. 10 and 11 apply to test 1086, during which there were very light winds and the air temperature varied between 28° and 30° . The test train was composed of cars whose weights averaged 59.5 tons. Fig. 10 shows the resistance values plotted with respect to speed, and it differs from similar preceding diagrams only in that the speeds vary throughout a greater range. This figure will be used, as have the others, to show the influence of journal temperature; but before doing so it may be of interest to show how plausibly this exhibit might be so construed as to lead to wrong conclusions.

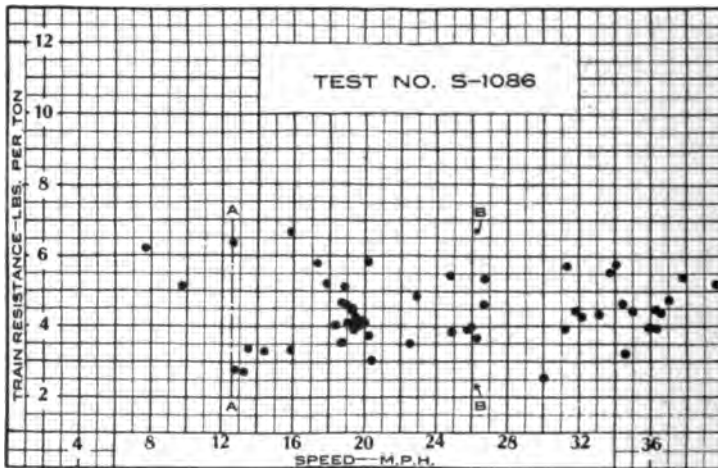


FIG. 10. SHOWING RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1086—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 28° TO 30°

The diagram exhibits considerable variations in the resistance values, even at like speeds. Let it be assumed, however, that speed is the only important influence at work in causing this variation. Presupposing that no record of wind velocity is available it might seem justifiable to ascribe much of this variation to the variations in wind resistance, and also to occasional changes in such elements of resistance as flange friction. Making such allowances, the discordance among points in the diagram might appear no greater than should be expected. Such considerations might easily lead to the belief that the diagram does actually represent the true relation between average train resist-

ance and speed, and it would therefore appear justifiable to represent this relation by a line drawn among the points of Fig. 10. An attempt to thus express the assumed relation would probably result in a horizontal straight line lying at a height corresponding to about 4.5 pounds per ton. Such a process would consequently lead to the conclusion that for this train the resistance is the same for all speeds up to about 40 miles per hour; that is, that train resistance is independent of speed. It is obvious, however, from what has preceded, that in causing the variations in resistance shown in Fig. 10, the journal temperature plays at least as important a part as the speed. Fig. 11 will make it clear that there is no warrant for the above conclusion in this case.

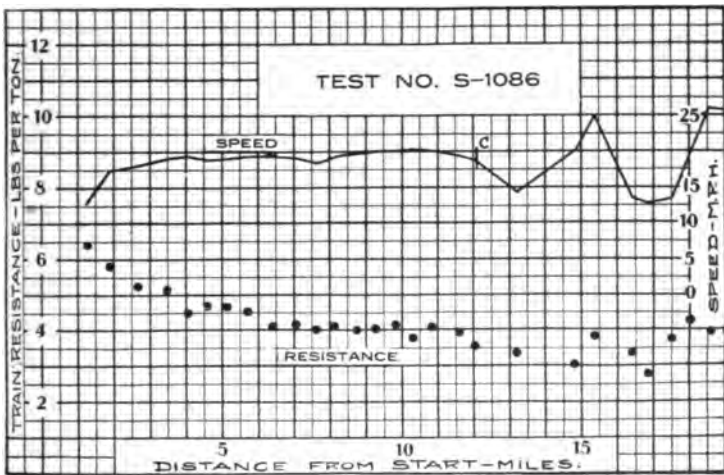


FIG. 11. SHOWING THE VARIATION OF RESISTANCE WITH DISTANCE AND WITH SPEED FOR TEST 1086

Fig. 11 comprises the points which in Fig. 10 lie between the lines A and B, corresponding to speed limits of 12.5 and 26 miles per hour. B is chosen at this point merely to reduce the length of Fig. 11. The resistance value for each point lying within this zone is plotted in Fig. 11 with respect to the distance of this point from the start. The upper line in Fig. 11 again represents the speed, which was quite uniform and near 20 miles per hour for the first 12 miles of the run—up to the point C. Beyond C the speed varied considerably. As in the tests previously discussed, the resistance decreases with great regularity during the first 12

miles, until at C the journals have apparently attained their maximum temperature for a speed of 20 miles per hour, and the resistance has reached its minimum value for this speed. Beyond C, therefore, the influence of journal temperature upon resistance largely disappears and the resistance thereafter responds, in its variation, quite definitely to changes in speed.

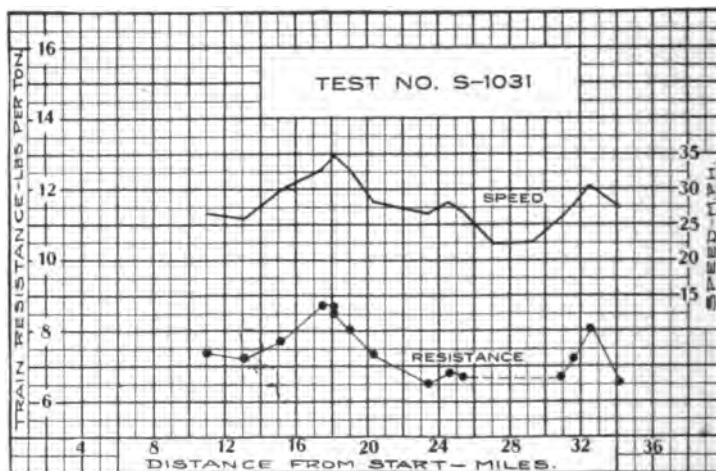


FIG. 12. SHOWING THE INTIMATE RELATION OF RESISTANCE AND SPEED AFTER THE JOURNALS HAVE BECOME WARM

Reference was made above to the definite response made by resistance to changes in speed, after the journals have become thoroughly warmed up. Fig. 12 is introduced to further illustrate this. It applies to test 1031, which was made in warm weather and which was selected on this account. During test 1031 the air temperature varied between 70° at the start and 82° at the end of the test. Within the first eleven miles the journals had assumed their maximum temperature and the record is presented only for that portion of the run lying beyond this point. As before, the upper line in Fig. 12 represents speed and the lower line represents resistance. The diagram reveals the intimate relation which exists between resistance and speed when the journals are warm. Every change in speed is closely followed by a corresponding change in resistance.

III. THE EFFECT OF GRADE ON TONNAGE REDUCTIONS

It was stated above that an increase in net train resistance, of say 30 per cent, due to low temperature, does not necessarily require a like reduction in train tonnage. This is due to the facts that net train resistance, which here denotes merely the resistance on level track, is not the only resistance which absorbs the tractive effort, and that the other resistances are unaffected by temperature.

The process of rating locomotives consists essentially in specifying a train whose gross resistance shall equal the available tractive effort. Since ratings are made to meet the conditions which exist at the ruling grades, this gross resistance must always consist of net resistance, as above defined, and of grade resistance.* Of these two elements the grade resistance is almost always the greater. Obviously neither air temperature nor any other external condition can affect the grade resistance, which is modified only by difference in grade. Since the larger element of gross resistance remains unaffected, the reductions in rating in cold weather need not be as great as the variations which cold weather causes in the smaller element of gross resistance; that is, in the net train resistance. Neither are these tonnage reductions the same for different grades. An example may serve to make this clearer.

Let us assume that it be required to find the summer and winter ratings for a certain class of locomotives on two divisions of a road, which we here designate as division A and division B. The ruling grade on A is one-half per cent, and that on B is one per cent. The resistance due to grade alone is 20 pounds per ton of train weight for each per cent of grade, and the grade resistance on division A is therefore 10 pounds per ton while on division B it is 20 pounds per ton. Now assume also that the net train resistance for the desired speed is 4.5 pounds per ton in summer and that in winter it is $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent greater, namely, 6.0 pounds per ton. We assume further that in summer the available tractive effort on grade A for the class of engines under consideration is 32,000 lb. and on grade B 30,500 lb. If the effect of cold weather upon the engine itself be assumed such as to cause a reduction of

*Acceleration and curve resistance may also be components of this gross resistance. They are, however, ignored here, since their consideration is not necessary to the argument, although their presence may modify its conclusion.

five per cent in tractive effort, we find the available tractive effort in winter to be 30,400 lb. on division A and 28,970 lb. on division B. We have now available enough information to calculate the tonnage ratings. On division A, for example, the gross resistance in summer is $10+4.5=14.5$ lb. per ton, the tractive effort is 32,000 lb. and the tonnage is consequently $32,000 \div 14.5 = 2,207$ tons. The winter tonnage on division A is $30,400 \div (10+6.0) = 1,900$ tons. The proper winter tonnage on division A is found therefore to be $(2,207 - 1,900) \div 2,207 = 14$ per cent less than the summer tonnage. Similarly for division B the tonnage reduction for winter weather is found to be 10 per cent. The results of these calculations are summarized in the following table:

		Division A	Division B
Ruling Grade—per cent.....		$\frac{1}{2}$	1
Tractive Effort in Summer, pounds	32,000	30,500	
Tractive Effort in Winter, pounds.....	30,400	28,970	
Grade Resistance, pounds per ton....	10	20	
Net Resistance in Summer, " " ".....	4.5	4.5	
Net Resistance in Winter, " " ".....	6.0	6.0	
Gross Resistance in Summer, " " ".....	14.5	24.5	
Gross Resistance in Winter, " " ".....	16.0	26.0	
Tonnage in Summer, tons.....	2,207	1,245	
Tonnage in Winter, " " ".....	1,900	1,115	
Tonnage Reduction, per cent.....	14	10	

It is apparent from these calculations that an increase in net resistance of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent necessitates a reduction in rating on division A of only 14 per cent and on division B this reduction need be only 10 per cent. Not only are the tonnage reductions in both cases considerably less than the difference in net resistance, but the reductions are different on the different grades. The greater grade requires the smaller tonnage reduction. If the ruling grades on a particular road do not differ greatly on the different divisions, it would be an unnecessary refinement of practice to discriminate between divisions in establishing tonnage reductions for winter weather. If, on the other hand, a road runs in both level and mountainous country, it is not only logical but economical to make such distinctions. The information at hand concerning current practice indicates that these facts have received little consideration, or at any rate, no application in the establishment of certain existing tonnage rating systems. On other roads, however, the facts are duly recognized and embodied in their rating practice.

There are a few roads operating almost exclusively in mountain territory which find it unnecessary to make reductions in rating for low temperatures. The ruling grades on these

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of the normal, even after running 24 miles. Part of this excess is doubtless due to the fact that a strong wind prevailed during the test; most of it, however, is probably due to low temperature.

Fig. 10 and 11 apply to test 1086, during which there were very light winds and the air temperature varied between 28° and 30° . The test train was composed of cars whose weights averaged 59.5 tons. Fig. 10 shows the resistance values plotted with respect to speed, and it differs from similar preceding diagrams only in that the speeds vary throughout a greater range. This figure will be used, as have the others, to show the influence of journal temperature; but before doing so it may be of interest to show how plausibly this exhibit might be so construed as to lead to wrong conclusions.

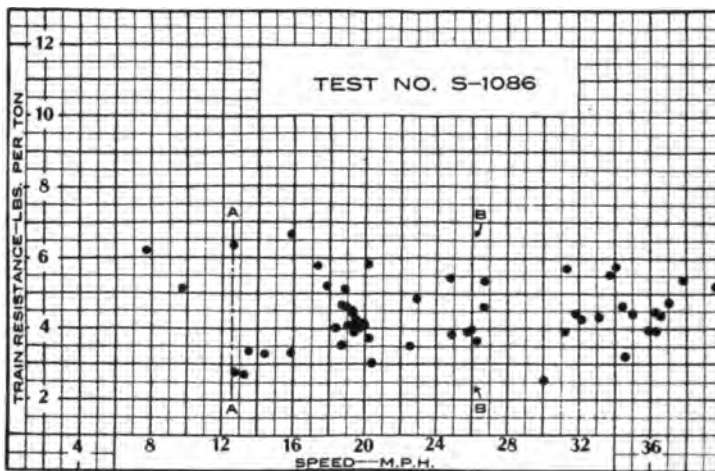


FIG. 10. SHOWING RESISTANCE AND SPEED FOR TEST 1086—AIR TEMPERATURE VARIED FROM 28° TO 30°

The diagram exhibits considerable variations in the resistance values, even at like speeds. Let it be assumed, however, that speed is the only important influence at work in causing this variation. Presupposing that no record of wind velocity is available it might seem justifiable to ascribe much of this variation to the variations in wind resistance, and also to occasional changes in such elements of resistance as flange friction. Making such allowances, the discordance among points in the diagram might appear no greater than should be expected. Such considerations might easily lead to the belief that the diagram does actually represent the true relation between average train resist-

roads are, of course, heavy. The foregoing example illustrates how the effect of heavy grades may disguise and almost nullify great variations in net resistance, and it offers, therefore, some justification for the practice which ignores distinctions between summer and winter ratings in such territory.

These facts serve also to show the necessity for care in adopting on one road the practice which has proved satisfactory on another. Unless the ruling grades are nearly alike, the system of tonnage reductions which has proved itself satisfactory on one road ought not to be transplanted to another without due consideration of these facts, even though the weather conditions are identical.

IV. A SUMMARY OF CURRENT PRACTICE

In connection with this investigation, a considerable amount of information has been collected from the railroads of the country concerning their tonnage rating practice. The attempt has been made to summarize this information and present it in the table which is here included, in the expectation that it would be useful to have such information assembled in somewhat compact form. It is believed that the table fairly represents, in most cases, the practice of the various roads as stated by their own officers. It has, however, been difficult occasionally to force into the form and limits of the table all the information available, and in a few cases the tabular statement scarcely represents all the facts. It is difficult, for example, to present in tabular form the limitations placed by some roads upon the application of their general practice. It is hardly possible to indicate in the table the degree of authority given on these roads to trainmasters and dispatchers, under which they may vary from the usual practice.

The roads are arranged in the table in the order of the air temperature limits which determine the normal rating and which appear in the first column. This arrangement was adopted because it makes easier the direct comparison of figures appearing in the later columns. At the same time, it brings together roads which operate in very different territory and under very different weather conditions and these facts should be borne in mind in making comparisons. Examination of the table makes it evident at once that there is great diversity of practice. Not only are different tonnage reductions made for similar temperatures,

but the range in temperature which is considered to warrant tonnage reduction varies from a few degrees to 30 or 40 degrees. Some roads have only one rating schedule in addition to their normal schedule; others operating under weather conditions not radically different have as many as ten additional schedules. Most of the differences in practice are, however, not surprising when it is considered that the roads included, represent practically the entire United States and Canada and represent, therefore, the greatest variety in weather conditions and topography. Most of the differences in practice disclosed by the table are quite sufficiently explained by the differences in the weather conditions prevailing in the territory served.

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Vol. IX

JUNE 3, 1912

No. 20

Deposited Feb. 11, 1912, at Urbana, Ill., as second-class matter under Act of Congress of July 16, 1894

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BULLETIN NO. 60

THE COKING OF COAL AT LOW TEMPERATURES

(WITH A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF THE BY-PRODUCTS)

BY

S. W. PARR

AND

H. L. OLIN



UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

URBANA, ILLINOIS

PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

BULLETIN No. 60

JUNE 1912

THE COKING OF COAL AT LOW TEMPERATURES

(WITH A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF THE BY-PRODUCTS)

BY S. W. PARR, PROFESSOR OF APPLIED CHEMISTRY, AND H. L. OLIN,
RESEARCH FELLOW, DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

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THE COKING OF COAL AT LOW TEMPERATURES

I. INTRODUCTION

1. *Purpose of the Investigation.*—The investigations discussed in this bulletin had two general purposes in view: (1) to discover some fundamental facts pertaining to the properties and characteristics of bituminous coals; (2) to determine the feasibility of modifying the composition of raw coal in order that a different type of fuel might be produced, or possibly an alteration accomplished of the entire fuel content into forms better suited to present-day requirements.

2. *Scope of Previous Investigations.*—In earlier experiments¹ (1907-1908), the information developed was mainly of the type indicated under the first division; for example, the experiments early indicated the important role played by small amounts of oxygen in the gases surrounding the heated masses of coal. The ease with which carbonaceous matter absorbed or united with oxygen was so striking that it seemed desirable to follow the matter into detail regarding the temperatures at which oxidation takes place, and its effect upon the material in hand. As a result, the whole matter of coal oxidation at low temperatures was opened up as one of extreme importance. One fundamental fact brought out in the study² was the absorbent power of freshly-mined coal for oxygen, and the part oxygen played in producing certain changes in the coal and promoting the initial form of deterioration in storage. Again³, the prime element in all the phenomena was seen to be that of oxidation. It will thus be seen that these preliminary studies on low temperature distillation, while mainly bringing into view what might be termed the scientific or fundamental properties of the material, at the same time determined facts which have had much to do with developing the practical application of

¹The present investigations are a continuation of the work carried on in 1907-8 and presented as a preliminary report under the title of "The Modification of Illinois Coal by Low Temperature Distillation". Bulletin No. 24, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station, by S. W. Parr and C. K. Francis. 1908.

²"The Occluded Gases in Coal", Bulletin No. 32, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station, by S. W. Parr and Perry Barker.

³"The Weathering of Coal", Bulletin No. 38, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station, by S. W. Parr and W. F. Wheeler; also "The Spontaneous Combustion of Coal", Bulletin No. 46, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station, by S. W. Parr and F. W. Kressmann.

the information in its relation to storage and spontaneous combustion.

In the second phase of the earlier study, i. e., its industrial side as related to the development of a special type of fuel, it seemed to be established that below a certain temperature, say 700° F., the heavy hydrocarbons, those chiefly responsible for the formation of smoke, could be driven off, yielding a gas of high illuminating power, a tar with high percentage of volatile oil, and a solid which, while it could be burned without smoke, was friable and not well adapted to ordinary use as a fuel.

3. *Outline of Present Investigation.*—In the present studies, the friable or non-coking tendency of the earlier product has been found to depend directly upon the amount of oxidation that has occurred both in the preliminary exposure at ordinary temperature and in the process of heating to moderately high temperatures.

The fact that a coke of good texture could be produced when a careful exclusion of oxygen had been effected, has given special interest to the present experiments. In addition, important facts have developed in connection with the study of the various by-products. These by-products have also been more or less modified in their characteristics by the exclusion of oxygen.

Briefly outlined, the present studies have developed three lines of industrial interest.

First: The possibility of developing a smokeless fuel of good texture and admirably suited to domestic as well as to general industrial use where absence of smoke is essential. The accompanying by-products promise to be of special value. These consist of (a) Ammonia, though smaller in quantity than the yield obtained at higher temperatures; (b) Illuminating gas of high candle-power and high heat value; and (c) Tar, which is composed almost entirely of oils, with a minimum amount of pitch and free carbon. Some of the oils produced are of peculiar structure and may have more than passing interest, two of the fractions, for example, being readily oxidizable. The iodine absorption numbers of the lighter fraction are found to be as high as 165.

Second: They suggest a possible method for the manufacture of producer gas which would be free from present difficulties attending the use of bituminous coal, and would convert a

much higher per cent of the fuel into the gaseous form. In view of recent developments in the matter of combustion, efficiencies are possible¹ where gaseous fuel is available which are almost revolutionary in character.

Third: There are opened up interesting possibilities in the production of coke, briquettes or other forms of fuel in a dense and stable form to meet certain requirements of shipping, storing, foundry, and other industrial uses. Certain facts developed in these studies will be found to throw some light on the problem of coking, which is at present but little understood².

It is not intended here to enter into a discussion of these three main topics; they will be taken up again after the details of the experiments have been set forth. The results of the experiments may then with better understanding be made to enter into the conclusions reached.

II. EXPERIMENTAL WORK

4. *Apparatus.*—The apparatus employed is illustrated in Fig. 1. From the high pressure main at *A*, steam was admitted to *BB*, a $\frac{5}{8}$ -in. pipe 11 ft. long, fitted with two return elbows. The steam was then heated by a 26-burner combustion furnace, *CC*. The retort *D*, 18 in. by 8 in., containing the coal, was fitted with a head *J* held in place with set-screws and sealed with asbestos. From the retort, the distillates were conducted by a pipe to a condenser *E* connected in turn with a large wash bottle *F*. Here the oils and tars were collected while the gases passed on to the gasometer *G*. A Hoskins nickel-nichrome thermocouple, inserted through a stuffing box *S* and joined to a millivoltmeter *K* measured the temperature of the retort contents. A battery of burners placed directly under the retort provided a means for securing additional heat, which was retained by means of an asbestos-lined oven which entirely surrounded both the retort and the furnace.

5. *Use of Superheated Steam.*—Superheated steam was used in this series of experiments as a medium for carrying the

¹Surface Combustion. Proc. Am. Gas Inst., 1911. By Prof. W. A. Bone. In this article Prof. Bone gives data showing an efficiency in the generation of steam by use of the principle of surface combustion of 94.2 per cent. It should be noted, however, that this efficiency is based upon the net heating value of gas.

²"The question as to what really is the factor that produces the coking tendency characteristic of some coals has been a matter of some speculation among manufacturers and users of coke for two hundred years and we are no nearer to its solution now than were the investigators of two centuries ago."—Iron Age, 1907. F. C. Kelghley.

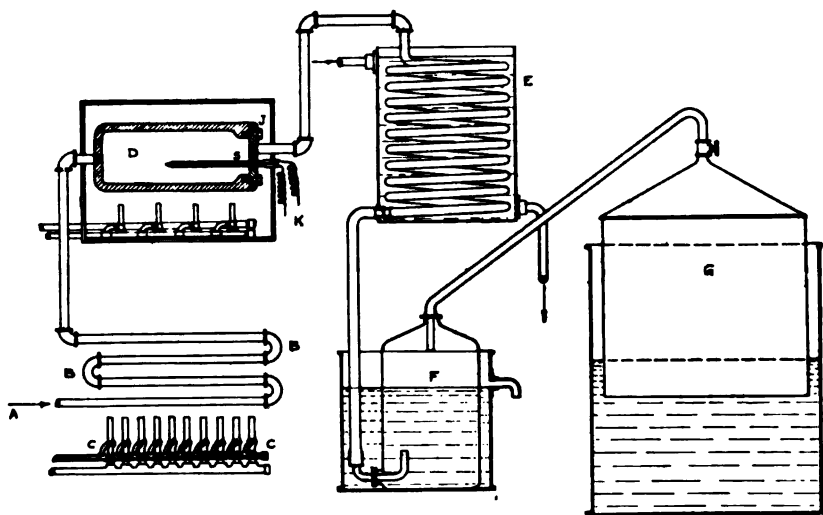


FIG. 1

heat into the coal mass, in order to distribute the heat evenly throughout the coal and thus obviate the necessity for revolving the container. In the earlier experiments (1907-1908), the carbonization was carried on in a cylinder heated externally and mounted on hollow trunions in order to make possible the turning of the receptacle, while at the same time the hollow bearings permitted the admission of various inert gases at one end and the discharge of the distillates at the other. With that device, the frequent turning over of the coal seemed to be unfavorable to the formation of coke having a homogeneous texture. Moreover, the mechanical features were not easily installed. There was positive evidence also of the activity of small quantities of oxygen, which entered by leakage or as an impurity in the circulating gas employed, thereby acting as a disturbing element. There seemed sufficient reasons, therefore, for employing a fixed retort and using superheated steam as the medium for conveying the heat and also for securing a suitable atmosphere for the distillation. As will be seen later under the discussion of the coking of coal, the use of steam in this manner has other advantages which, while not fully appreciated at first, are directly in line with the fundamental conditions upon which depends the property of coke formation.

6. *Coal Used.*—Table 1 gives the data concerning the coals used. It should be noted that since these studies were made for the

purpose of testing the coking powers of the different coals and not to determine their relative commercial values, many of the samples selected were cleaner than the general run-of-mine. The low ash and sulphur percentages result from the exclusion of pyrites.

TABLE 1
COMPOSITION OF COAL

Mines Counties—Illinois	Moisture	Ash	Volatile Matter	Fixed Carbon	Sulphur	B. t. u.
Vermilion.....	8.80	8.72	43.05	39.43	2.88	12 673
Franklin.....	6.84	7.28	37.96	47.82	1.33	12 770
Saline.....	3.93	5.80	37.86	52.41	1.54	13 563
Macon.....	8.70	12.12	39.30	40.88	2.30	11 417
Perry.....	7.19	10.05	35.42	47.34	.80	12 153
Williamson.....	5.30	4.55	36.50	49.65	2.77	12 640

7. *Operation.*—A quantity of coal sufficient for one run only from 2500 to 3000 grams, was crushed at one time. In the first experiments, the pieces ranged from $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to buckwheat size, the dust being removed by a sieve. At first the coal was put directly into the retort, but it was found that the circulation of the steam was retarded, delaying the heating of the mass. To remedy this, a cylindrical sheet-iron container, 6 in. in diameter, perforated with small holes, was made to hold the charge. This shell (see Fig. 2) being smaller than the retort and having a sur-

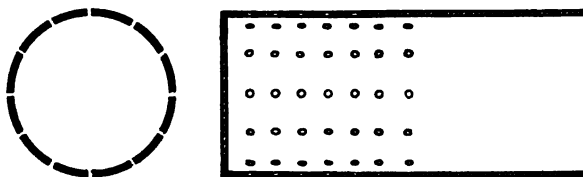


FIG. 2

rounding space of about 1 in., allowed a free distribution of heat. It was used throughout the remaining runs of the series.

Steam was admitted from the main and allowed to blow through the system until the air was entirely displaced. The combustion furnace was next started and then the burners under the retort. The coal was not stirred after heating had begun.

Table 2 exhibits the average working conditions. By improving the facilities for applying external heat to the retort, the time of the later runs was reduced to an average of about five hours.

TABLE 2

TEST CONDITIONS: FIRST SERIES

Run No.	3	4	5	6	7
Weight of coal ¹ , grams.....	4800	5851	3195	3498	3308
Weight of residue, grams.....	4030	4113	1895	2310	2595
Max. temp. (degrees C.).....	475°	515°	450°	410°	430°
Ratio of coke.....	84%	76.8%	86.3%	80.3%	85.2%

¹Nineteen runs were made in the first series, using Williamson Co. coal for the first 10 tests. In the other tests, the coal came from the following counties in the order given, Vermilion, Williamson, Franklin, Saline, Macon, Vermilion, Vermilion, Williamson, Vermilion.

8. *Distribution of Products.*—Table 3 illustrates the distribution of products.

TABLE 3

EXPERIMENT² No. 11

Coal used ²	Electric Mine, Danville, Ill.
Temperature (average).....	450°
Time of distillation.....	5 hr.
Volatile matter in original coal not including moisture.....	43.00
Volatile matter in coke residue.....	37.95
Volatile matter in coke residue referred to original coal..	23.01
Loss in weight of original coal, volatile matter only, not including moisture.....	20.28
Total volatile matter derived as above, not including moisture.....	42.39
Total material removed by distillation including moisture	29.10

²Selected as a typical example.

³For methods of calculating percentages of coal constituents in this and succeeding tables see Bul. No. 16, p. 209, Ill. Geol. Sur.

TABLE 4

YIELD OF PRODUCTS FOR DIFFERENT PERIODS OF HEATING

Time of Heating	3 hr.	6 hr.
Coal.....	3000 grams	4000 grams
Coke.....	2327 grams	2908 grams
Per cent coke.....	77.50%	72.50%
Weight of tar.....	233.5 grams	316.0 grams
Per cent tar.....	7.93%	7.90%
Weight of total water.....	206.5 grams	349.4 grams
Per cent free moisture.....	3.33% or 6.93%	3.00% or 8.71%
water constitution.....	3.55% or 6.93%	5.71% or 8.71%
Volume of gas at 760 mm. and 0°.....	87 liters	154.7 liters
Calculated to cu. ft. per lb. of coal.....	.46 cu. ft.	.54 cu. ft.

From the preceding tables a fair indication is given of the ratio of distribution of the main products of decomposition. A study of these three products, gas, tar and coke, has been made, sufficient to determine their general characteristics and value.

III. GASES

9. *Analysis of the Gas.*—The methods of Hempel were used in making all gas analyses. For absorbing the illuminants, bromine water checked with the results from fuming sulphuric acid and was free from the disagreeable properties of the latter. The paraffin hydrocarbons were determined by the use of the explosion pipette. Hydrogen was determined separately with palladium sponge, a variation from the ordinary industrial method necessary when higher paraffins are present in the gas. Calorific values were determined with the Parr gas calorimeter.

It is impossible to determine absolutely the paraffin content of a gas by any methods now in general use, when more than two of the homologues of methane are present. However, by measuring the contraction of the gases and the amount of CO_2 produced in burning them in the explosion pipette, the total volume of the hydrocarbons having the general formula $\text{C}_n \text{H}_{2n+2}$ may be determined together with the average value for n . On the assumption that the higher homologues are all ethane, the percentages of methane and ethane may then be computed¹.

Several analyses of the gases obtained early in the work were made, but on account of air leakage in the gasometer, the results obtained were misleading. Table 5 shows the average of results obtained under satisfactory conditions, from gas evolved at an average temperature of 400° .

TABLE 5
GAS FROM DANVILLE ELECTRIC MINE COAL

H_2S	CO_2	Illuminants	CO	H_2	C_2H_6	CH_4	N_2	B. t. u.
3.2	5.7	8.3	5.2	5.0	14.4	51.4	5.7	1032

The computed heat value of this gas was 1024 B. t. u. and agrees closely with that determined directly. Heat values of the different gases as given by Abady² were used as the basis of calculation.³

From the agreement between the observed heat value as shown by the gas calorimeter and the calculated value as derived

¹Abady, *Gas Analyst's Manual*, p. 356, 1902.

²*Gas Analyst's Manual*, p. 521, 1902.

³According to J. H. Coste (Chemical Engineer, February, 1911) it has been found from Julius Thomsen's figures that the average calorific value of the unsaturated hydrocarbons is equivalent to that of propylene, C_3H_6 .

from the constituents, indirect evidence is obtained as to the correctness of the assumption concerning the composition of hydrocarbons assumed to be present in the higher forms.

10. *Heat Value*.—It will be noted that this gas is relatively of high heating value, 1024 B. t. u. per cu. ft. Compared with ordinary city gas at 600 B. t. u. per cu. ft., this gas has a heat value about 70 per cent greater, i. e., 1 cu. ft. at 1024 B. t. u. would be equal to nearly 1.7 cu. ft. at 600 B. t. u.

11. *Sulphuretted Hydrogen*.—The gas is practically free from naphthalene but has a considerable content of H_2S . The latter feature is unexpected, since the temperature of decomposition of FeS_2 is $1000^\circ C$. and above. Doubtless, therefore, the sulphuretted hydrogen present is in the main due to the breaking down of the organic sulphur. It seems to be entirely in the form of H_2S and, therefore, easily removable by the usual methods of purification. Some of the coke residue from a coal having originally 4 per cent of sulphur was examined to see if any of the iron pyrites, FeS_2 , had been broken down by the temperature employed to ferrous sulphide, FeS . Five grams were treated with a large excess of dilute hydrochloric acid. The mass was thoroughly washed and the percentage of sulphur remaining determined. Test No. 1 gave 3.55%; No. 2, under identical conditions, 3.70%. A quantity of the same residue kept well moistened was then exposed to air and sunlight for a period of twelve days in order to oxidize any FeS present to a sulphate. After washing, the sulphur content was 3.74%, indicating that FeS in the original sample was absent.¹ It is evident, therefore, that the pyritic iron had been little affected by the temperatures of the retort.

12. *Ammonia*.—Any by-product process for the carbonization of coal would, of course, take account of the nitrogen liberated in the form of NH_3 . At the temperature employed in these experiments, it would not be expected that any considerable part of the nitrogen organically present would be decomposed. The following values are shown in a distillation² varying in temperature from 375° - $400^\circ C$. In this work the entire distillate from a run of 3000 grams was retained and the total ammonia of the liquor determined. It was found to contain ammonia as NH_3 sufficient to

¹On the subject of the decomposition of pyrite, Peters, in *Principles of Copper Smelting*, p. 268, quotes Sticht as saying "At dull red heat FeS_2 loses $\frac{3}{7}$ of its sulphur and becomes FeS . At 1200° , it becomes for the first time FeS ".

²Experiments by Mr. E. C. Hull, Fellow in Chemistry, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station, March, 1909.

represent a yield of 0.8 lb. per ton of coal, somewhat less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the yield from high temperature distillation. It is not certain that the value of this product would pay for its recovery.

13. *Decomposition of Oxygen Compounds.*—The oxygen compounds upon decomposing form water. They are, therefore, often referred to as the water of constitution. They are properly considered under this division, though not forming permanent gases. It is a question of great interest whether any decomposing action in connection with the temperatures employed has taken place. If such decomposition has occurred, it has by so much enriched the fuel value of the remaining coke for the reason that these compounds are inert and noncombustible and, when present, by so much increase in effect the ash factor so far as combustion is concerned. The fact of their decomposition is shown by the increase of water content in the distillate over and above that which would normally occur from a condensation of the hygroscopic moisture alone. While this fact was not available in the case of distillation with superheated steam, the point was well established in the previous experiments¹, as also by experiments conducted by Mr. E. C. Hull, not heretofore published, in which careful measurement was kept of the amount of water distillate recovered from the coal used.² Thus, from the work of the latter we have the following:

TABLE 6

	3000 Grams Coal Distilled for 8 hr. Temp. 300° to 400°	4000 Grams Coal Distilled for 6 hr. Temp. 300° to 400°
Weight of water in distillate	208.5	348.4
Weight of free moisture in original coal	102.0	120.0
Excess water from decomposition of oxygen compound in coal....	106.5	228.4
Per cent of water from decomposition of oxygen compound	3.55	5.71

14. *Summary of Data Concerning the Gaseous Product.*—Distillation of Illinois coals at temperatures averaging 450° C. and not exceeding 500° C. produces a gas having a heating value exceeding 1000 B. t. u. per cu. ft. The yield approximates $\frac{1}{2}$ cu. ft. per lb. of coal which, at the heat value present, would represent a yield of 1.00 cu. ft. per lb. of a gas with a heat value of 500 B. t. u. per cu. ft. The ammonia yield is low, being approximately 3 lb. of ammonium sulphate per ton of coal. Decom-

¹Bulletin No. 24, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station, Parr and Francis.

²See also Porter and Ovtz. Bulletin No. 1, U. S. Bureau of Mines, p. 26-28.

position at this temperature extends to the oxygen compounds, which are in the main carried off and appear in the condensate instead of in the gaseous product. This feature will be referred to again under the discussion of the composition and properties of the coke residue.

IV. TAR

15. *Composition.*—As already noted, the amount of tar recovered from the distillations approximates $\frac{1}{2}$ of the yield of volatile matter and in the sample noted where a direct weighing was made (Table 6), this material represents very nearly 8% by weight of the original coal. An exhaustive study of this material would be an elaborate topic for research in itself. We can, therefore, give only the general characteristics of the material as found by fractional distillation as follows:

TABLE 7
FRACTIONS FROM LOW TEMPERATURE TAR

Amount of tar (exclusive of water carried over).....	875 grams	
Light oil (20°-100°).....	39.1	10.5%
Fraction (b) (100°-200°).....	109.1	29.1
" (c) (200°-240°).....	111.8	29.8
" (d) (240°-275°).....	20.6	5.5
Coke residue.....	80.0	21.3

From the results as given in Table 7, it will be seen that 75% of the material classed as tar is in reality oils of different specific gravities and thus of much greater value than the pitch proper. This latter product, moreover, is much smaller in amount than is produced with high temperature distillation. In the latter case over one-half of the tar is pitch, with a considerable content of free carbon suspended in the material. The low temperature product is approximately one-fifth a pitch residue with some suspended carbon present, seemingly depending on the extent to which the temperature of the coal mass has been carried above 400°.

16. *Properties of Oils.*—The further examination of the oils distilled from the tar has developed the interesting fact that these oils are readily oxidizable. As a measure of this property the iodine absorption number was determined with results as given in Table 8. It is realized, of course, that the iodine absorption

must include or represent other activities than simple oxidation especially in a complex mixture where members of the aromatic series are present.

TABLE 8
IODINE ABSORPTION OF OIL DISTILLATE

Fraction b, 100°-200° (29%)	Iodine No. 166
Fraction c, 200°-240° (29.8%)	115-125

Further study of the oils recovered is necessary in order to determine their specific values. Their ready oxidizability opens up a very interesting and suggestive field. For example, this feature is a marked characteristic of drying oils, turpentines, etc., used in paint mixtures. The question arises as to whether these oils will have drying qualities, i. e., will they not simply evaporate, leaving no residue, or will they oxidize in such a manner as to produce a film-covering, which will serve as a paint vehicle. Or, in a mixture with a drying oil such as linseed or similar oil, will they promote the peculiar properties of such oils which make them of value for paint mixtures? While only a few general points in this connection have been developed, they indicate characteristics of great interest and, possibly, value. It seems fair to conclude that in some measure at least the iodine absorption numbers are an indication of the avidity of the oils for oxygen. This is shown by the rapid discoloration of the oil when exposed to the air and to the fact that the lighter fraction will yield a dry film on glass at a 45° angle when exposed for 24 hr. under the usual standard requirements for such test. The second fraction has also drying properties, but the process is much slower. Or, rather, a fractionation appears to take place in which the drying oil forms a hard gelatinous film while the non-drying portion segregates into minute globules which are more or less enveloped by the films of oxidized oil. At least, it may be said of the oils which make up the element of the tar, they are available directly as fuel or for enriching or carburetting water gas. For example, if the process were continued to include the manufacture of water gas from the coke residue, the oil of the tar would doubtless enter into the reaction in the same manner as the crude petroleum now used, and thus would furnish the needed enrichment without the clogging effect which results when the attempt is made to use the raw coal directly in the manufacture of water gas.

V. COKE

17. *Yield of Coke.*—The yield of coke, under average conditions, as already noted in the previous tables, is approximately 75% to 80%. This factor will, of course, vary greatly with the amount of ash originally in the coal and on the temperature at which the distillation has been carried on. These items of variation are shown in the following table where material of widely varying composition was used.

TABLE 9
COMPOSITION OF COKE RESIDUES

	Experiment No. 11 Vermilion Co.	Experiment No. 13 Franklin Co.	Experiment No. 14 Saline Co.
Moisture.....	.34	.40	.38
Ash.....	11.15	9.38	6.97
Volatile matter.....	27.61	26.60	23.50
Fixed Carbon.....	59.90	63.73	69.23
Sulphur.....	2.58	1.21	1.20
B. t. u.....	12892	13446	13746

TABLE 10
SHOWING THE YIELD OF COKE FROM VARIOUS COALS REFERRED TO
ORIGINAL COAL—DRY BASIS

	Experiment No. 11	Experiment No. 13	Experiment No. 14
Ash.....	9.56	7.93	6.04
Volatile matter expelled.....	25.48	18.00	19.12
Residual coke.....	78.10	84.73	84.86

18. *Reactions Involved.*—In the transformation illustrated by the change from the composition as given for the raw coal in Table 1 and the residual coke as shown by the table above, No. 9, certain facts may be deduced as follows:

First: there has been, seemingly, a decomposition of the volatile matter in a manner which would increase slightly the factor for fixed carbon. For example, if the fixed carbon be calculated as indicated in Table 11 to a percentage of ash corresponding to that of the raw coal, comparisons will be obtained as follows:

TABLE 11
COMPARISONS OF FIXED CARBON IN ORIGINAL COALS AND RESIDUES, DRY BASIS

	Experiment No. 11 Vermilion Co.	Experiment No. 13 Franklin Co.	Experiment No. 14 Saline Co.
Fixed carbon in original coal ...	43.24	51.30	54.56
Fixed carbon in coke residue referred to original ash.....	46.80	54.10	59.70

19. *Oxygen Removed*.—As has already been stated, the decompositions occurring at temperatures in the neighborhood of 400° C. include the liberation of oxygen, or, as it is frequently designated, the water of constitution. Since this ingredient of the raw coal is non-combustible¹, it has the same function as so much ash. Its removal, therefore, serves to make of the resulting material a richer or more concentrated fuel. This feature is still further promoted by the removal of the hygroscopic or free moisture which usually exceeds in amount the water of composition. This point may be illustrated by the accompanying table wherein the heat values per pound of the original coal are compared with the heat values per pound of the residual coke. There is also given an estimate of the amount of non-combustible material removed in the form of water in the process of decomposition.

TABLE 12

Samples	B. t. u. per lb. As Received	B. t. u. After Treatment per lb.	Gain Thermal Units	Gain per cent	Estimated Loss of Total Non-combustible Free and Combined Moisture
Williamson Co.	12695	13150	455	3.60	10.30
Saline Co.	13583	13746	163	1.63	8.93
Vermilion Co.	12673	12992	219	1.72	13.30

20. *Properties, Porosity, Hardness, etc.*—The coke material obtained by this process varies in character somewhat with the kind of coal used, and also the amount of pressure employed during the carbonization. The Williamson Co. coal, for example, gives a coke of much finer texture and less porosity than the coal from Vermilion Co. With a view to determining the reason for this greater porosity or to finding the conditions that would modify it, the attempt was made to carry on a test with the coal sample under pressure. To this end the following apparatus was used:

21. *Apparatus*.—A, Fig. 3, is an iron cylinder, 8 in. by 4 in., fitted with screw caps B and B¹, which received the coal. The movable piston C to which is attached a long rod D, is pressed against the charge by tightening the nuts EE. The cylinder is perforated with small holes to allow the escape of gases. This contrivance was fitted into the retort originally used and heat was applied as before.

¹Bulletin No. 3, Illinois Geological Survey, p. 32-33.

Exhibit 1 shows the results obtained when pressure is applied slowly during the entire heating period. The outer portions passing through the temporary state of fusion soon harden and form a wall which resists external pressure. The inner core, therefore, is extremely porous. When sufficient pres-

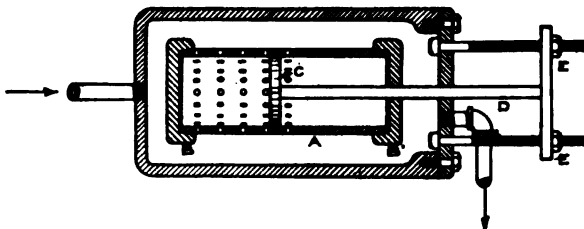


FIG. 3

sure is applied, the outer part fractures and, as in this case, the residue comes out broken up into small pieces. The coke shown in the figure is from coal from Perry Co. The specific gravity of the outer portions of the mass is .733 against .652 when coked without pressure.

It was evident, therefore, that in order to get a firm block, pressure must be constant. In the next run, the charge was rammed into the cylinder and the piston was screwed up tightly but not moved after heating had begun. The resulting column cohered well and showed the same increase in specific gravity as the one mentioned above.

22. *Illustrations of Various Products.*—An interesting feature of the product is the complete fusion of the mass, where proper conditions exist, i. e., the individual particles of coal of buck-wheat or pea size have completely lost their identity, the resulting homogeneous mass showing no lines of demarcation from the original pieces of coal. The texture, however, in some cases is finer or closer than in others. These points are well illustrated in photographs of typical masses as reproduced in exhibits 2 and 3, for coals from southern Illinois. Exhibit 4 represents a somewhat coarser texture. It was made from Vermilion Co. coal. For the composition of these samples, reference is made to Table 9, p. 14. Exhibit 2 from Saline Co. coal showed a crushing strength of 750 lb. per sq. in.¹; exhibit 3 from a Franklin

¹John Fulton, (*Coke*, p. 331.) gives 1200 lb. per sq. in. as the ultimate crushing strength of standard Connellsville coke; by-product coke is, in general, considerably stronger.

The crushing strength is important in reference to the load or burden the coke can with stand in the furnace without crushing.



Exhibit 1



Exhibit 2



Exhibit 3



Exhibit 4



Exhibit 5



Exhibit 6



Exhibit 7



Exhibit 8



Exhibit 9



Exhibit 10

Co. sample crushed at 900 lb. On account of its coarse cellular structure, exhibit 4 showed little rigidity, and broke down at a pressure of 300 lb.

23. *Resume Relating to the Coke Product.*—It is evident upon examination of the coke product obtained, as above described, that we have here a fuel of firm texture, not readily broken down by handling and producible in the most convenient sizes for handling and for efficiency in combustion. It is, moreover, in a more concentrated form, in that for the most part, the free moisture and the water of constitution have both been removed. Thus in freshly mined coal there would be eliminated from 15 to 20 per cent of inactive material. Again, the heavy hydrocarbons have been removed. These are the constituents most directly responsible for the formation of smoke in the combustion of untreated coal. It is to be noted further that because this coke has been subjected to a temperature just approaching a red heat, it will not begin to evolve volatile matter, when thrown upon the fire, before it again comes up to or passes that temperature.

The effect of this point is twofold: first, there is obviated the cooling effect which must be necessary in the vaporization of moisture in the raw coal which also lowers the temperature just when a high temperature is needed for burning the heavy hydrocarbons; and second, the remaining gases to be evolved consist almost wholly of ethane or marsh gas (CH_4) and hydrogen, both of which are readily combustible. The hydrogen, of course, burns with a non-luminous flame and is incapable of making smoke. The marsh gas (CH_4), though it has carbon in its composition, adds but little luminosity to the flame and is almost incapable of producing smoke in the process of combustion.

It may be well to analyze briefly the processes of combustion as they occur in an ordinary hand-fired furnace. The first result of throwing a mass of coal upon a fire is to lower the temperature during the time of volatilization of the moisture in the coal. Theoretically, the temperature of the mass during this process would remain at or slightly below 100°C .

Other factors tending to lower the temperature would be the specific heat¹ of the coal and the heat necessary to effect the decomposition, since it is probable that the decomposition reactions are endothermic up to approximately 300°C ².

¹Bulletin No. 46, University of Illinois Engineering Experiment Station, Parr and Kressman, p. 24.

²Bulletin No. 24, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station, Parr and Francis, p. 46—47.

It is to be noted that during this depression of the general temperature there is being distilled from the coal such volatile substances as are liberated at these lower temperatures. This point can best be illustrated by means of the accompanying diagram. In Fig. 4, the region between the lines A and B may be assumed to include those volatile constituents that are driven off at a temperature below 400°C . This area includes the free moisture of the coal, the combined moisture or water of constitution, or as some prefer, the oxygen compounds of the coal, shown on the chart as inert volatile; and, in addition, some of the pure hydrocarbons which constitute a portion of the true volatile combustible matter. It is, moreover, the nature of this latter or volatile combustible material with which we are just now concerned in this discussion of the processes of combustion. It is to be noted first that this volatile matter contains the

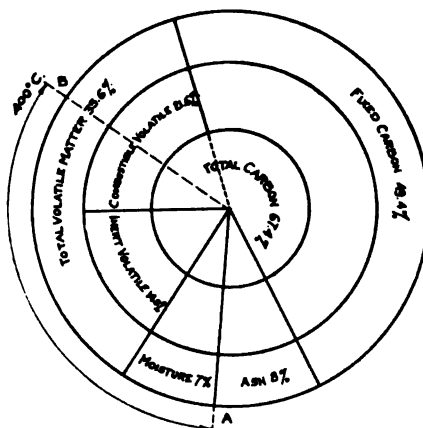


FIG. 4

bulk of the heavy hydrocarbons. By this is meant that they belong to the higher series of any of the homologous compounds present which in general are characterized by a higher percentage of carbon. For example, if the series is that of marsh gas or methane CH_4 , i. e., $\text{C}_n \text{H}_{2n+2}$, then the next higher order of this series would be ethane or C_2H_6 , and the next, propane or C_3H_8 . The carbon percentages, respectively, being 75, 80, 81.8, etc. Again a very considerable part of the volatile matter delivered at this temperature belongs to the methylene series $\text{C}_n \text{H}_{2n}$, and the first known member of the series is ethylene or olefiant gas, C_2H_4 , with a carbon percentage of 92.92. Moreover,

this last compound may be made to break down under higher heat into members of other series, as acetylene, C_2H_2 , benzene, C_6H_6 , and naphthalene, $C_{10}H_8$. Other members of the ethylene or paraffin series are found which ally the resulting complex mixture quite closely to the very complicated compounds with which we are familiar in petroleum.

The point to be noted in this phase of the discussion is the fact that these compounds discharged at this relatively low temperature, and having these high percentages of carbon, are the most difficult of complete combustion without the formation of smoke.

It is not necessary here to discuss the mechanics of combustion of hydrocarbons. As a result of the researches of H. B. Dixon¹ and of Professor Bone² the selective theory of oxygen for hydrogen or the dogma of "preferential combustion of hydrogen" has been obliged to give place to the theory of the intermediate formation of "oxygenated" or "hydroxylated" molecules. In any event, or whatever the theory finally developed by Professor Bone in his most important researches on combustion, the fact remains that these heavier hydrocarbons are the most difficult of all with which to effect complete combustion, and that even under favorable circumstances the tendency in their combustion is to form condensation products in which free carbon largely predominates. The faulty reaction is thereby made visible to the eye as smoke. A good illustration of this fact is found in acetylene gas, which requires a special burner with special provision for an extra oxygen supply in order to produce a smokeless flame.

Smokeless combustion of raw coal is secured, therefore, by observing the principles indicated above; i. e., there must be uniform and gradual accession of fresh coal and a combustion chamber maintained at a sufficiently high temperature, and the same extending over a sufficient space to permit of ultimate mixing and contact of the oxygen with the combustible gases. Other conditions such as accelerating the reaction by introducing the principle of surface combustion, as developed by Professor Bone, may at some time be added to the mechanical and physical conditions now in vogue. But while these provisions are readily adapted to large steam generating units, they are impossible of application to the larger members of combus-

¹Phil. Trans. 1893, 159; Trans. Chem. Soc. 61, 873 (1899);

²Chem. News, 102, 309 (1911).

tion processes such as are common to the small plant, house heaters, and possibly to locomotives. It is these latter cases especially that demand a modified fuel which can be burned without the formation of smoke.

It will thus be seen that in the low temperature distillation of coal, processes have been put into operation which have taken out the heavy smoke-producing ingredients, and have also removed the moisture, both free and combined, which are chiefly responsible for the depression of temperatures under ordinary conditions. There is left, moreover, as volatile matter, practically these volatile substances only; methane CH_4 and hydrogen, which most easily of all the gaseous products from coal, maintain a smokeless combustion.

VI. THE FORMATION OF COKE

The experiments as thus far conducted seem to throw some light upon the matter of coke formation. In this discussion of the theories involved, it may be helpful to formulate certain hypothetical conditions which have had more or less confirmation in these studies, as follows:

First: For the formation of coke there must be present certain bodies which have a rather definite melting point.

Second: The temperature at which decomposition takes place must be above the melting point.

Third: Where the compounds that satisfy the first and second conditions are unsaturated, it is possible by subjecting them to oxidation to so lower the temperature of decomposition as to alter the second condition prescribed, in which case coking will not occur.

Discussion of Conditions.—The first condition prescribed above may be well illustrated by the behavior of sucrose or cane sugar. This substance has a rather low melting point, say, 160°C . This melting point, however, is just below the temperature of decomposition. Where this point is reached, gaseous products in the form of steam, etc., are delivered, leaving behind, if the high temperature is continued, a mass of coke. On the other hand, if starch is heated in a similar manner, it does not melt but its first action is that of decomposition. When this is carried to completion, there remains not a strongly coherent mass but easily disintegrated particles of carbon. Pure cellulose behaves in a still more striking manner, showing no fusion properties whatever as may be demonstrated by distilling in a closed

tube some cotton fiber, or other form of cellulose such as filter paper beaten to a pulp and dried. Wood, however, if not disintegrated, as in the form of sawdust, has enough resinous material closely associated with the fibrous structure to bind the carbon filaments resulting from the decomposition of the cellulose by reason of the fact that these gums, or resins, have a melting point below that of their decomposition temperatures, and thus form a binding film of carbon throughout the mass, producing a sort of coking effect which we find in charcoal.

In the case of Illinois coals, we find the first prerequisite formulated above, as present in a marked degree. As an illustration of the fact of a low melting point, reference is made to exhibit 5, which is a photograph of a mass of such material, which exuded from a sample of Vermilion Co. coal, subjected to the usual treatment as described on p. 7. The lump shown is a part of a mass that flowed out of the container, forming a bubble-like puddle. It would seem, therefore, that this type of coal from the north Danville field (Electric mine) has the first essential for coke formation in a marked degree.

As illustrating the conditions which exist where oxidation had been allowed to take place, an example is given in exhibit 6. This was made from a weathered sample of coal from Niantic. It had little if any tendency to fuse; the individual particles of coal still retain their form and the mass may be easily crumbled between the fingers. It should be noted that this result is not due to any inherent quality possessed by the original coal; a Danville mine sample, for instance, weathered to a like degree, gives the same results.

Test No. 9.—Another verification of this point, though in a more marked manner, was the result of test No. 9. The coal used was the fine material which had collected from the preparation of the previous tests, all of which had given excellent samples of coke in their freshly prepared condition. A quantity of coal passing through a 40-mesh sieve had accumulated through a period of about six weeks and had been stored in an ordinary coal hod in the grinding room. After being heated for eleven hours under conditions identical with those of the preceding runs, it showed no signs of fusion and was entirely without coking properties.

It is evident from these tests that the very great avidity of fresh coal for oxygen is evidence of the presence of those compounds which satisfy the first of the hypothetical conditions,

p. 17, and the subjection of the coal to oxidation destroys the fusion property of the fresh coal and produces a condition corresponding to that described under the third proposition, in which the coking property is lost.

Other studies on the nature of the coking process were carried out as follows: The apparent plasticity exhibited by the coal during certain stages of the treatment suggested the idea of compressing it into a briquette at the time when it would most easily yield to pressure and when it would presumably cohere without requiring an artificial binder. Accordingly, a cupel press with a pressure of 500 lb. was provided and the retort was charged with Danville mine coal. At the time of maximum evolution of gas, the heat was suddenly shut off and the retort quickly opened. It was found at this point that the outer and hotter portion of the mass was hard and unyielding. A soft inner core was discovered, however, and portions of this were put into the press. The resulting briquette is shown in exhibit 8. The escaping gases have swollen it considerably. Determinations of the amount of volatile matter possessed by the coal when in the plastic condition showed that this constituent had been reduced very little,—from 38 % to 30 %. In short, the state of fusion seems to exist in early stages of distillation but disappears before the process has proceeded far.

In one of the earlier tests with Danville mine coal using the apparatus described in Fig. 3, the extreme fusibility of this type was again demonstrated. As the piston was slowly forced in, pencils of bituminous matter were squeezed out through the holes of the cylinder. Exhibit 5 includes some of these nodules. The fact that there was a selective separation of bitumen is proved by a comparison of the ash values, the residue as a whole having 13 %, the nodules, 8 % of ash.

The readiness with which the cementing material ran to waste seemed to indicate that the coal contained a superfluous amount of it—more than was necessary for binding itself together. The correctness of this view was shown by a series of runs in which crushed gas house coke and anthracite were heated with varying amounts of bituminous coal.

Exhibit 7 shows the hard firm product resulting from the mixture of equal parts of Majestic bituminous coal and gas house coke, both crushed to 20 mesh. Fairly good results were obtained in the next run with 75 % of the coke and only 25 % of Danville Electric coal. In like manner, powdered an-

thracite and bituminous coal in ratios varying from 1 : 1 to 3 : 1 were firmly cemented together. Pitchy material no longer exuded from the retort, being absorbed, seemingly, by the added substance.

One of the essential factors in this scheme for briquetting loose infusible material with bituminous coal is the use of the press for keeping the two substances in close contact. On account of the difficulty of applying such a contrivance in industrial work, attempts were made to attain the desired end by using temporary binders, i. e., substances which might hold the particles together closely until the permanent coal binder could relieve them.

Mixtures of Danville mine coal and Danville mine coke residue No. 17 in the proportion 3 : 1 were thoroughly moistened with water and pressed (1) in the cupel machine and (2) in a testing machine up to 1000 lb. per sq. in. Neither of the briquettes survived the subsequent heating, being disintegrated, seemingly, by the escaping steam. The same effect, though to a much less degree, was noted when coal tar was employed. The resulting briquette retained its shape, but was rather soft and friable. Crude molasses, of all the binding materials triide, proved to be the best for this purpose. Different percentages of the molasses, ranging from 5 to 15, were tested out at different times. Below ten per cent the strength of the briquette was much diminished. Exhibit 9 is a 3:1 mixture of Danville mine coke residue and fresh Danville mine coal, both ground to 20 mesh, first bound with 11 % of molasses and then pressed in the cupel machine. The cake was next heated in the retort under the atmospheric conditions of all the preceding runs. This briquette 2 in. high and 2 in. in diameter, has a crushing strength of 550 lb. per sq. in. Exhibit 10 shows anthracite briquettes made in the same way. They have a specific gravity of 1.02 and crush at 650 lb. per sq. in.

These tests seem to show that the fusible substance of Illinois coals is the true binding material in the coking process; that it is present in such abundance as to produce a coke of too open and spongy a character as a result of the evolution of the large amount of gaseous products which result from its decomposition. In this respect, it is paralleled by the behavior of sugar in the process of coking, which yields as a result of the large volume of escaping gases a very porous mass of sugar, coke or carbon. However, if the raw coal is mixed with a considerable

p. 17, and the subjection of the coal to oxidation destroys the fusion property of the fresh coal and produces a condition corresponding to that described under the third proposition, in which the coking property is lost.

Other studies on the nature of the coking process were carried out as follows: The apparent plasticity exhibited by the coal during certain stages of the treatment suggested the idea of compressing it into a briquette at the time when it would most easily yield to pressure and when it would presumably cohere without requiring an artificial binder. Accordingly, a cupel press with a pressure of 500 lb. was provided and the retort was charged with Danville mine coal. At the time of maximum evolution of gas, the heat was suddenly shut off and the retort quickly opened. It was found at this point that the outer and hotter portion of the mass was hard and unyielding. A soft inner core was discovered, however, and portions of this were put into the press. The resulting briquette is shown in exhibit 8. The escaping gases have swollen it considerably. Determinations of the amount of volatile matter possessed by the coal when in the plastic condition showed that this constituent had been reduced very little,—from 38 % to 30 %. In short, the state of fusion seems to exist in early stages of distillation but disappears before the process has proceeded far.

In one of the earlier tests with Danville mine coal using the apparatus described in Fig. 3, the extreme fusibility of this type was again demonstrated. As the piston was slowly forced in, pencils of bituminous matter were squeezed out through the holes of the cylinder. Exhibit 5 includes some of these nodules. The fact that there was a selective separation of bitumen is proved by a comparison of the ash values, the residue as a whole having 13 %, the nodules, 8 % of ash.

The readiness with which the cementing material ran to waste seemed to indicate that the coal contained a superfluous amount of it—more than was necessary for binding itself together. The correctness of this view was shown by a series of runs in which crushed gas house coke and anthracite were heated with varying amounts of bituminous coal.

Exhibit 7 shows the hard firm product resulting from the mixture of equal parts of Majestic bituminous coal and gas house coke, both crushed to 20 mesh. Fairly good results were obtained in the next run with 75 % of the coke and only 25 % of Danville Electric coal. In like manner, powdered an-

this last compound may be made to break down under higher heat into members of other series, as acetylene, C_2H_2 , benzene, C_6H_6 , and naphthalene, $C_{10}H_8$. Other members of the ethylene or paraffin series are found which ally the resulting complex mixture quite closely to the very complicated compounds with which we are familiar in petroleum.

The point to be noted in this phase of the discussion is the fact that these compounds discharged at this relatively low temperature, and having these high percentages of carbon, are the most difficult of complete combustion without the formation of smoke.

It is not necessary here to discuss the mechanics of combustion of hydrocarbons. As a result of the researches of H. B. Dixon¹ and of Professor Bone² the selective theory of oxygen for hydrogen or the dogma of "preferential combustion of hydrogen" has been obliged to give place to the theory of the intermediate formation of "oxygenated" or "hydroxylated" molecules. In any event, or whatever the theory finally developed by Professor Bone in his most important researches on combustion, the fact remains that these heavier hydrocarbons are the most difficult of all with which to effect complete combustion, and that even under favorable circumstances the tendency in their combustion is to form condensation products in which free carbon largely predominates. The faulty reaction is thereby made visible to the eye as smoke. A good illustration of this fact is found in acetylene gas, which requires a special burner with special provision for an extra oxygen supply in order to produce a smokeless flame.

Smokeless combustion of raw coal is secured, therefore, by observing the principles indicated above; i. e., there must be uniform and gradual accession of fresh coal and a combustion chamber maintained at a sufficiently high temperature, and the same extending over a sufficient space to permit of ultimate mixing and contact of the oxygen with the combustible gases. Other conditions such as accelerating the reaction by introducing the principle of surface combustion, as developed by Professor Bone, may at some time be added to the mechanical and physical conditions now in vogue. But while these provisions are readily adapted to large steam generating units, they are impossible of application to the larger members of combus-

¹Phil. Trans. 1893, 159; Trans. Chem. Soc. 61, 873 (1893);

²Chem. News, 102, 309 (1911).

amount of material which has already gone through the coking process, or which has at least given off the larger part of its gases, and then has been reduced to a fine division like breeze, the cementing material of the fresh coal is able to disseminate throughout the mass, and the gases may also escape without blowing it into a spongy mass, with the result that a coke of good texture is formed. Exactly in a similar way, if molasses or other sucrose or glucose material be substituted for the fresh coal, we shall have again the formation of a dense coke capable of retaining its shape under conditions of firing much better than where a plastic binder is used. In both cases a strongly cohering mass is produced which meets the requirements of handling, storage, and combustion with the greatest efficiency and the least formation of smoke. A small admixture of raw coal may thus be made to serve the purpose of a binder for material otherwise wasted as coke breeze at a cost which would enable it to compete with the pitch binders now in use. It also suggests a process of fractional coking, or coking in two stages. The first result at the lower temperature furnishes a product which, when ground to a moderate degree of fineness and mixed with a small portion of fresh raw coal, would furnish the essential conditions for producing a coke of dense nature with a binder so distributed as to give the material a strength quite comparable with that produced by coals of the regular coking variety. Moreover, an advantage would be evident in such material, especially for use in household appliances, in that it would be more lively in combustion and less difficult of manipulation in the matter of maintaining a fire than coke made by the usual methods.

One point further is to be noted in this connection. It was said at the beginning of the discussion that superheated steam was employed for the purpose of conveying heat into the material so that it would not be necessary to revolve the apparatus in order to secure an even distribution of heat. It is seen from the above detail of the essential conditions to be observed in the coking of coals, at least of this class, that an atmosphere free from oxygen is of prime importance. Indeed following the indicated requirement, the coal should be fresh, or as recently mined as possible, and in any event retained in larger sizes than in a broken down or a fine state of division, in order that the least possible opportunity be given for the absorption of oxygen. Furthermore, by first admitting steam or bringing the coal into an atmosphere of

superheated steam, the effect is to drive out such oxygen as has been occluded or absorbed by the coal and as yet not chemically combined. This is also brought about at temperatures and other conditions least conducive to a reaction between oxygen and the coal substance. Moreover, from former experiments,¹ it has been shown that no reaction at these temperatures takes place between the steam itself and the coal. These principles have an important bearing on certain recent tendencies to concentrate gas production and coke manufacture in large units and distribute the gaseous products at high pressure. From the above, it would seem that the nearer such units were located to the mine or pit-mouth, the better. If it is found, as seems probable, that the coke residue is a suitable material for further continuation of the gas-making process for the manufacture of producer gas, then the above advantages and essential conditions would be magnified.

A discussion² by Prof. Lewes, relating to English coals, bears such a striking resemblance to the facts developed in our own work on Illinois coals that the references have especial interest in this connection. Lewes develops his theories on the basis of the existence in coals of four types of degradation products which have all come from two original forms of vegetation; viz: cellulose or lignose, and resinous bodies such as the spores of the lycopodia. The first form of vegetation, i. e., the cellulose, has produced the coal compounds of the humic and ulmic types, while the resinous bodies have produced the other three, viz: (1): resinous bodies with but little alteration; (2) isometric or other slight modifications in form rather than of composition; and (3) decomposition products from resins produced by the action of heat and pressure and consisting of a long series of both saturated and unsaturated compounds, hydrocarbons of the hydro-aromatic series, and saturated hydrocarbons, like hexane, pentane, etc.

"All these degradation products of the original vegetation are to be found in the bituminous coals, the residual body and humus forming the basis, which is luted together by the hydrocarbons and resins, and the characteristics of the various kinds of coal are dependent upon the proportions in which the four groups of the conglomerate are present. . . . The resin bodies and hydrocarbons which form the cementing portion in the coal melt between 300° and 320°C, and if a coarsely powdered sample of the coal becomes pasty or semi-fluid at this temperature,

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it is a strong inference that the coal will coke on carbonization, a fact noted by Anderson, and which I have found very useful in practice as a rough test. About these temperatures also the resin bodies and hydrocarbons begin to decompose.

The resin bodies at low temperature yield saturated hydrocarbons, unsaturated, chiefly hexahydrides or naphthenes, together with some oxygenated compounds, while the hydrocarbons yield paraffins and liquid products, all these primary constituents undergoing further decompositions at slightly higher temperatures. The liquids so produced begin to distill out as tar vapors and hydrocarbon gases, and leave behind with the residuum pitch, which at 500°C forms a mass already well coked together if the residuum from the humus is not too large in quantity; the coke formed at this temperature is, however, soft, but if the heat be now raised to 1000°C, the pitch residue undergoes further decomposition, yielding gas and leaving carbon, which binds the mass into a hard coke."

He discusses further the action of oxygen upon certain of the initial constituents, referring to the investigations of Boudouard.

"Boudouard has shown that when coal is weathered humus bodies are produced and the coking power lessened or destroyed. In seven samples of various coals the humus constituents were increased by the oxidation, which seems to show that the action of the absorbed oxygen is to attack the resin compounds, and as we know that carbon dioxide and moisture are the chief products of the earlier stages of heating of masses of coal, it seems probable that the result is a conversion of resinic into humus bodies with evolution of these gases, and it is this change which leads to the serious deterioration in the gas and tar made coal which has been too long in store, while the fact that a cannel coal like Boghead or a shale do not weather is partly due to their dense structure and also is an indication that the resin bodies of which they are chiefly composed are of a different type, a fact borne out by their resistance to certain coal solvents which freely attack the ordinary resin matter."

A continuation of studies along this line is being made. Mention has been made concerning the adaptability of the coke thus produced to use in suction gas producers for furnishing fuel to gas engines. Its freedom from tar, oils, and the heavier products of distillation, which clog and render impossible the use of raw bituminous coals of this type, would seem to offer a solution of these fundamental difficulties. Further studies along this line are also being made.

VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. Coals of the Illinois type can be coked at a temperature approximately 400° or 450° C.
2. The gaseous products consist chiefly of illuminants of high candle-power, and represent, together with the condensable

material under (3) following, the chief elements involved in formation of smoke in the ordinary combustion of raw coal. The nitrogen of the coal is liberated as NH_3 , at these temperatures, in amounts representing approximately 20% of the total nitrogen present.

3. The condensable distillate consists largely of oils with the minimum amount of tar and free carbon. The oils represent positive values for fuel, for carburetting water gas, or for other specific uses on account of their chemical characteristics as unsaturated compounds.

4. The coke residue has special characteristics which seem to make it of value as a concentrated fuel, capable of combustion without the formation of smoke, suitable for storing without the possibility of spontaneous combustion, and presumably adapted to the manufacture of gas for use in the suction gas producer.

5. Certain facts seem to have been developed concerning the principles involved in the formation of coke which may open the way to the production of a kind of coke of such texture and strength as to make it acceptable for uses that are not now possible with coke made from similar coal, but formed under ordinary conditions, such as are found in the ordinary gas-house retort practice, or that of the by-product coke-oven.

Other considerations¹ are pertinent in this connection, such as losses and pollution of the atmosphere which accompany the production of smoke².

¹As illustrating the present-day appreciation of matters connected with fuel economy and activity of thought concerning remedial measures, a quotation is here made from the presidential address of Sir William Ramsay before the British Association for the Advancement of Science at York, Eng., July, 1911. (Science, Vol. 34, p. 302, Sept., 1911.)

"The domestic fire problem is also one which claims our instant attention. It is best grappled with from the point of view of smoke. Although the actual thermal loss of energy in the form of smoke is small, still the presence of smoke is a sign of waste of fuel and careless stoking. In works, mechanical stokers, which insure regularity in firing and complete combustion of fuel are more and more widely replacing hand-firing. But we are still utterly wasteful in our consumption of fuel in domestic fires. These considerations would point to the conversion at the pit-mouth of the energy, using as intermediary, turbines or preferably, gas-engines; and distributing the electrical energy to where it is wanted. The use of gas engines may, if desired, be accompanied by the production of half-distilled coal, a fuel which burns nearly without smoke, and one which is suitable for domestic fires.

It is not necessary to multiply arguments for the prevention of smoke. However, a recent article in the Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry, December 15, 1911, by Prof. J. B. Cohen and A. G. Ruston, contains some very striking facts developed in their study of the smoke problem. A few extracts may be given as follows:

"The average per cent of soot passing up the chimney, in 12 analyses including eight of Yorkshire coals, two of Durham coals, and two of Wigan coals, amounted to 6.5 per cent on the carbon burnt. This quantity 6.5 per cent seems a very high figure, representing an annual loss of nearly two million tons on the estimated domestic consumption of 33 million tons. The average deposit of soot over the whole of Leeds will therefore correspond to at least 230 tons per square mile per annum. The tar contained in the soot adheres so tenaciously to everything that it is not easily removed by the rain. The leaves of trees and evergreens in particular get coated with this black deposit. Unfortunately, it does more than blacken the vegetation; it covers the whole leaf over with a kind of varnish, and fills up the pores or stomata, thus checking the natural process of transpiration and assimilation. It is in fact no uncommon thing to find in the case of leaves of conifers grown in Leeds that 80 per cent of the stomata are choked up with tar."

Further studies have in mind the carrying out of the processes as indicated with apparatus involving the continuous feature, subjecting the mass at the point of greatest fusibility to the pressure of the oncoming material and producing the coke in amount sufficient for testing its properties in the gas producer and for combustion in other ways which would test its properties as a smokeless fuel.

APPENDIX

tion processes such as are common to the small plant, house heaters, and possibly to locomotives. It is these latter cases especially that demand a modified fuel which can be burned without the formation of smoke.

It will thus be seen that in the low temperature distillation of coal, processes have been put into operation which have taken out the heavy smoke-producing ingredients, and have also removed the moisture, both free and combined, which are chiefly responsible for the depression of temperatures under ordinary conditions. There is left, moreover, as volatile matter, practically these volatile substances only; methane CH_4 and hydrogen, which most easily of all the gaseous products from coal, maintain a smokeless combustion.

VI. THE FORMATION OF COKE

The experiments as thus far conducted seem to throw some light upon the matter of coke formation. In this discussion of the theories involved, it may be helpful to formulate certain hypothetical conditions which have had more or less confirmation in these studies, as follows:

First: For the formation of coke there must be present certain bodies which have a rather definite melting point.

Second: The temperature at which decomposition takes place must be above the melting point.

Third: Where the compounds that satisfy the first and second conditions are unsaturated, it is possible by subjecting them to oxidation to so lower the temperature of decomposition as to alter the second condition prescribed, in which case coking will not occur.

Discussion of Conditions.—The first condition prescribed above may be well illustrated by the behavior of sucrose or cane sugar. This substance has a rather low melting point, say, 160°C . This melting point, however, is just below the temperature of decomposition. Where this point is reached, gaseous products in the form of steam, etc., are delivered, leaving behind, if the high temperature is continued, a mass of coke. On the other hand, if starch is heated in a similar manner, it does not melt but its first action is that of decomposition. When this is carried to completion, there remains not a strongly coherent mass but easily disintegrated particles of carbon. Pure cellulose behaves in a still more striking manner, showing no fusion properties whatever as may be demonstrated by distilling in a closed

tube some cotton fiber, or other form of cellulose such as filter paper beaten to a pulp and dried. Wood, however, if not disintegrated, as in the form of sawdust, has enough resinous material closely associated with the fibrous structure to bind the carbon filaments resulting from the decomposition of the cellulose by reason of the fact that these gums, or resins, have a melting point below that of their decomposition temperatures, and thus form a binding film of carbon throughout the mass, producing a sort of coking effect which we find in charcoal.

In the case of Illinois coals, we find the first prerequisite formulated above, as present in a marked degree. As an illustration of the fact of a low melting point, reference is made to exhibit 5, which is a photograph of a mass of such material, which exuded from a sample of Vermilion Co. coal, subjected to the usual treatment as described on p. 7. The lump shown is a part of a mass that flowed out of the container, forming a bubble-like puddle. It would seem, therefore, that this type of coal from the north Danville field (Electric mine) has the first essential for coke formation in a marked degree.

As illustrating the conditions which exist where oxidation had been allowed to take place, an example is given in exhibit 6. This was made from a weathered sample of coal from Niantic. It had little if any tendency to fuse; the individual particles of coal still retain their form and the mass may be easily crumbled between the fingers. It should be noted that this result is not due to any inherent quality possessed by the original coal; a Danville mine sample, for instance, weathered to a like degree, gives the same results.

Test No. 9.—Another verification of this point, though in a more marked manner, was the result of test No. 9. The coal used was the fine material which had collected from the preparation of the previous tests, all of which had given excellent samples of coke in their freshly prepared condition. A quantity of coal passing through a 10-mesh sieve had accumulated through a period of about six weeks and had been stored in an ordinary coal hod in the grinding room. After being heated for eleven hours under conditions identical with those of the preceding runs, it showed no signs of fusion and was entirely without coking properties.

It is evident from these tests that the very great avidity of fresh coal for oxygen is evidence of the presence of those compounds which satisfy the first of the hypothetical conditions.

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Other studies on the nature of the coking process were carried out as follows: The apparent plasticity exhibited by the coal during certain stages of the treatment suggested the idea of compressing it into a briquette at the time when it would most easily yield to pressure and when it would presumably cohere without requiring an artificial binder. Accordingly, a cupel press with a pressure of 500 lb. was provided and the retort was charged with Danville mine coal. At the time of maximum evolution of gas, the heat was suddenly shut off and the retort quickly opened. It was found at this point that the outer and hotter portion of the mass was hard and unyielding. A soft inner core was discovered, however, and portions of this were put into the press. The resulting briquette is shown in exhibit 8. The escaping gases have swollen it considerably. Determinations of the amount of volatile matter possessed by the coal when in the plastic condition showed that this constituent had been reduced very little,—from 38 % to 30 %. In short, the state of fusion seems to exist in early stages of distillation but disappears before the process has proceeded far.

In one of the earlier tests with Danville mine coal using the apparatus described in Fig. 3, the extreme fusibility of this type was again demonstrated. As the piston was slowly forced in, pencils of bituminous matter were squeezed out through the holes of the cylinder. Exhibit 5 includes some of these nodules. The fact that there was a selective separation of bitumen is proved by a comparison of the ash values, the residue as a whole having 13 %, the nodules, 8 % of ash.

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3. The condensible distillate consists largely of oils with the minimum amount of tar and free carbon. The oils represent positive values for fuel, for carburetting water gas, or for other specific uses on account of their chemical characteristics as unsaturated compounds.

4. The coke residue has special characteristics which seem to make it of value as a concentrated fuel, capable of combustion without the formation of smoke, suitable for storing without the possibility of spontaneous combustion, and presumably adapted to the manufacture of gas for use in the suction gas producer.

5. Certain facts seem to have been developed concerning the principles involved in the formation of coke which may open the way to the production of a kind of coke of such texture and strength as to make it acceptable for uses that are not now possible with coke made from similar coal, but formed under ordinary conditions, such as are found in the ordinary gas-house retort practice, or that of the by-product coke-oven.

Other considerations¹ are pertinent in this connection, such as losses and pollution of the atmosphere which accompany the production of smoke².

¹As illustrating the present-day appreciation of matters connected with fuel economy and activity of thought concerning remedial measures, a quotation is here made from the presidential address of Sir William Ramsay before the British Association for the Advancement of Science at York, Eng., July, 1911. (*Science*, Vol. 34, p. 302, Sept., 1911.)

"The domestic fire problem is also one which claims our instant attention. It is best grappled with from the point of view of smoke. Although the actual thermal loss of energy in the form of smoke is small, still the presence of smoke is a sign of waste of fuel and careless stoking. In works, mechanical stokers, which insure regularity in firing and complete combustion of fuel are more and more widely replacing hand-firing. But we are still utterly wasteful in our consumption of fuel in domestic fires. These considerations would point to the conversion at the pit-mouth of the energy, using as intermediary, turbines or preferably, gas-engines; and distributing the electrical energy to where it is wanted. The use of gas engines may, if desired, be accompanied by the production of half-distilled coal, a fuel which burns nearly without smoke, and one which is suitable for domestic fires.

²It is not necessary to multiply arguments for the prevention of smoke. However, a recent article in the *Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry*, December 15, 1911, by Prof. J. B. Cohen and A. G. Ruston, contains some very striking facts developed in their study of the smoke problem. A few extracts may be given as follows:

"The average per cent of soot passing up the chimney, in 12 analyses including eight of Yorkshire coals, two of Durham coals, and two of Wigan coals, amounted to 6.5 per cent on the carbon burnt. This quantity 6.5 per cent seems a very high figure, representing an annual loss of nearly two million tons on the estimated domestic consumption of 33 million tons. The average deposit of soot over the whole of Leeds will therefore correspond to at least 230 tons per square mile per annum. The tar contained in the soot adheres so tenaciously to everything that it is not easily removed by the rain. The leaves of trees and evergreens in particular get coated with this black deposit. Unfortunately, it does more than blacken the vegetation; it covers the whole leaf over with a kind of varnish, and fills up the pores or stomata, thus checking the natural process of transpiration and assimilation. It is in fact no uncommon thing to find in the case of leaves of conifers grown in Leeds that 80 per cent of the stomata are choked up with tar."

Further studies have in mind the carrying out of the processes as indicated with apparatus involving the continuous feature, subjecting the mass at the point of greatest fusibility to the pressure of the oncoming material and producing the coke in amount sufficient for testing its properties in the gas producer and for combustion in other ways which would test its properties as a smokeless fuel.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX

I. INTRODUCTION.

HISTORICAL¹

STUDIES IN THE LOW TEMPERATURE DISTILLATION OF COAL.

Researches in the low temperature distillation of bituminous coals have been carried on at the University of Illinois since 1902². In a series of preliminary experiments, on heating coal to temperatures ranging from 250° to 500° for periods of less than an hour, it was found that the percentage of fixed carbon was increased by more than 25% and that there was a corresponding decrease in volatile matter to a point where the formation of smoke was prevented altogether.

In order to eliminate as far as possible those variables which would result from oxidation, Parr and Francis in continuing this work heated Illinois coals in non-oxidizing atmospheres. Choosing nitrogen first as the most suitable medium for this purpose, a careful study was made of the quantity and composition of the gases and heavy residues produced at different temperatures below 400° C. With a view to securing an absolutely inert atmosphere, after finding that the ordinary commercial nitrogen was contaminated with oxygen, the air in the retort was displaced by steam.

The coals heated in these media underwent changes which rendered them smokeless in ordinary combustion. However, on account of the rotary motion given the retort in order to equalize the temperatures, the coke product came out in a loose granular state much like that of the original coal.

In the course of some of the experiments, while using oxygen as the atmospheric medium, rises in the thermometer readings were observed at unexpectedly low temperatures, seemingly independent of the amount of external heat supplied. This suggested the idea of a second series of tests entirely separate from the first, to determine the temperatures at which oxidation begins. The method of procedure was to allow the retort to cool slowly

¹In assembling the literature relating to the carbonization of coal, it has been planned to bring together first, all of the references to low temperature distillation including the studies of the by-products, followed by references to the theories concerning coke formation and the carbonization of coal in general.

²Ill. Geol. Surv., Bull. No. 4, by S. W. Parr, p. 97, 1906.

until a drop of say 50° had been recorded. Oxygen was then admitted and the resulting temperature was noted. A rise was considered proof of oxidation. This was repeated until a point was reached where no rise in temperature occurred on the readmission of oxygen. In this way it was found that pulverized bituminous coals in pure oxygen began to oxidize at about 125° and that they ignited at about 160°. With diluted oxygen the temperatures were somewhat higher.

While making some of their tests with atmospheres of steam it was observed that near the temperature of 315° the mercury made an abrupt rise incommensurate with the amount of external heat added. After allowing the coal to cool to 300° and then again heating up to 315° the same phenomenon was observed. No appearance of carbon dioxide accompanied this sudden rise. A tentative explanation is that it was due to the exothermic character of decompositions occurring at that stage.

In considering the subject of oxidation temperatures,¹ it was found that freshly-mined coal immediately begins to exude hydrocarbons and to absorb oxygen and that it retains its avidity for oxygen for an indefinite length of time. The exact result of this absorption was not fully determined, but it seems probable that under favorable temperature conditions it would tend to hasten combustion.

Constam and Schlapfer² publishing "Studies in the Gasifying of the Principal Types of Coal" report that the percentage of oxides of carbon included in the gases given off in distilling coal varies with the oxygen content of the coal itself.

R. T. Chamberlain³, studying the causes of mine dust explosions, found that fresh coal absorbs a large quantity of oxygen but that even under a vacuum it gives off very little. He determined further that coal bottled in air for several weeks yields some carbon dioxide but an amount equivalent to only a small part of the oxygen absorbed. This he thought, might be due to the presence of unsaturated compounds in the coal, which form addition products with oxygen.

Mahler and Charion⁴ found that when dry air was passed over pulverized coal at temperatures below 100°, measurable quantities of water, carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide were

¹Bulletin No. 32. By Parr and Barker, Engineering Experiment Station, University of Illinois. (1910).

²Jour. Gasbel. 49, 741. 774. (1906).

³Bulletin No. 383. U. S. Geol. Sur. (1909).

⁴Compt. rend. 150, 1521, 1604. (1910).

given off. Between 125° and 200° the liberation of water was so greatly accelerated as to indicate the splitting off of water of constitution. Above 150° the water contained considerable quantities of acetic acid, from 20% to 40% of the total condensate, and showed, in addition, traces of acetones, aldehydes, and methyl alcohol. The upper limit of temperature in their studies was 200°.

Porter and Ovitz¹ made an extended study of the volatile matter of coal with a view to determining the influence of the gas composition factor on the efficiency in the use of coal in various industrial processes with special reference to gas producer, coke oven and gas retort operation.

Their investigations show that the composition of the volatile matter of a coal depends largely upon the character of the coal itself. The gases from the younger coals of the West compared with those from the coals of the Appalachian region have high percentages of carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide. Because of the readiness with which these gases are given off even at comparatively low temperatures (300°-500°), the writers conclude that these western coals contain compounds having a direct carbon linkage such as the complex alcohols, aldehydes and acids. They show, further, that contrary to the theory of Dulong, who assumed that in combustion all the oxygen of a coal combined with hydrogen, in the case of certain low grade highly oxygenated coals nearly two-thirds of the oxygen appears in the volatile products in union with carbon, and that this fact accounts for the discrepancy between the determined heat value and that calculated by Dulong's method.

Higher hydrocarbons such as ethane are produced in greatest abundance from the eastern coals and they, consequently, yield more smoke in combustion. In general, however, the gas evolved from any coal subjected to moderate heat only, is rich in the higher paraffins such as ethane and propane. In the case of Connellsville coal, at furnace temperatures of 500° and 600° these higher hydrocarbons constitute about 50% of the total paraffin content. At about 800° the percentage reaches a maximum, when it rapidly falls on account of decomposition by heat.

They conclude that the nature of the volatile products distilled from coal in the early stages of heating varies in accordance with the smoke producing tendencies of that coal. They

¹The Volatile Matter of Coal. Bull. 1, Bureau of Mines. 1910.

include among the smoke-producing constituents, tar, benzene, ethylene, and the higher homologues of methane.

E. Boernstein¹, subjecting eight Westphalian coals to a maximum temperature of 450°, reports that the gaseous products of distillation did not exhibit differences corresponding with those shown by the coals themselves. Compared with ordinary coal gas, they were characterized by a higher content of heavy hydrocarbons (5% to 14%) and of methane and its homologues (55% to 76%), and a lower content of hydrogen (5% to 16%). The tars had a specific gravity between .95 and .98, began to distill at about 70° to 80°, and were found to contain no aniline, thiophene, naphthalene, or anthracene. He states that the solid paraffin content ranged from .3% to 2% (m. pt. 55° to 60°).

Inasmuch as in modern gas retort operation portions of the coal do not reach their maximum temperature for one or two hours, the subject of low temperature distillation is of real importance to the gas industry. In a paper read before the Michigan Gas Association, White, Park and Dunkley², report the results of their studies of the primary reactions involved in heating American coals to 500°.

Gas evolution commences only above 300° and that given off in the 300° to 350° interval contains from 25% to 40% of ethane. Above the latter point the yield of ethane diminishes and very little is produced between 450° to 500°. The illuminants decrease with increasing temperature starting with 8% at 300° and going down to zero at 500°. Methane starting with small amounts reaches its maximum in the 400° to 450° interval. They call attention to the similarity of the gases produced at low temperature to natural gas and suggest that the latter was also produced at low temperature. They give the following results of analyses:

TABLE 13
AVERAGE YIELD AND COMPOSITION OF GAS FROM COAL HEATED FOR SIX TO EIGHT HOURS AT TEMPERATURES OF 300°-500°

Coal Volume in cu. ft. per lb. of	Pittsburgh, Penna.	Bay City, Mich.	Zeigler Ill.
Coal.....	1.42	1.15	0.63
CO ₂	2.9	16.2	13.1
Illum.....	2.2	4.1	1.6
CO.....	6.2	5.0	5.8
H ₂	26.3	16.4	13.9
CH ₄	47.0	37.8	38.0
C ₂ H.....	13.2	11.8	19.5
N ₂	2.7	9.1	7.8
Calculated B. t. u.....	902	778	871

¹ Jour. Soc. Chem. Ind. 25-213. (1906).

² Am. Gas Light J. 11-111. (1906).

The apparent similarity between the gases evolved from coal at low temperatures and natural gas, gives interest to the work of Cady and McFarland¹ on the composition of the natural gases of Kansas. They proved the presence of paraffins heavier than methane and ethane, by condensing higher boiling hydrocarbons along with the methane in a bulb surrounded with liquid air. Some of these remained liquid up to ordinary temperatures and had an odor similar to that of light boiling petroleum distillates. The quantity of this residue varied in the different gases.

Professor V. B. Lewes² in discussing the relative merits of high and low temperatures for gas distillation, gives parallel tables showing the net cost of 1000 cu. ft. of gas produced by each of the two processes.

TABLE 14
COST OF 1000 CU. FT. OF GAS

(1) High (900°)			(2) Low (400°)		
		pence			pence
Coal.....		13.30			26.50
Operating expenses.....		6.74			5.50
		<u>20.04</u>			<u>32.00</u>
LESS VALUE OF RESIDUALS PRODUCED					
Coke.....	.82 cwt.	6.11	2.4 cwt.		17.64
Tar.....	.9 gal.	1.30	4.6 gal.		6.90
NH ₄ products.....		<u>2.11</u>			<u>2.80</u>
		9.52			27.34

NET COST OF GAS

	10.52.....	4.66
B. t. u. of gas 592.....		750.

He points out that although the coke residues are figured at the same price, coke (2) is really more valuable since it contains 15% of volatile matter which increases its calorific value. He states also that the low temperature tar distillates contain valuable fractions of a character different from those obtained from ordinary gas tar, one of which is especially suitable for use in motors as a fuel.

Burgess and Wheeler³ working on the problem of the prevention of mine dust explosions, and recognizing the relationship

¹Jour. of Am. Chem. Soc. 29, 1523. (1907).

²Engineering. 85-410. (1906).

³Jour. Chem. Soc. 97-1917. (1910).

that exists between the character of the volatile matter escaping from a heated coal, and its degree of inflammability, studied the composition of the gases evolved at different temperatures.

They found that with all coals whether bituminous, semi-bituminous, or anthracite, there was a well-defined decomposition point at a temperature between 700° and 800° which corresponds to a marked increase in the quantity of hydrogen evolved. This increase they attribute to the thermal decomposition of one or more of the higher homologues of methane yielding hydrogen and carbon. Ethane, propane, butane, and, probably, higher members of the paraffin series, form a large percentage of the gases given off at temperatures below 450°; above 700° they no longer appear.

They believe that the smoke producing elements consist almost entirely of the higher paraffins and differ from Porter and Ovitz in excluding ethylene and the related unsaturated gases from this class. This view is based upon experiments made showing that ethylene decomposing at 600°, deposited very little carbon.

A typical analysis of the gases obtained is given below.

TABLE 15
GAS FROM COAL FROM ABERTILLERY, SOUTH WALES (BITUMINOUS)

Coal (C)	Temp.	Illum.	CO ₂	CO	H ₂	CH ₄	C ₂ H ₆
	500°	5.8	3.9	4.7	8.0	64.5	11.0
	600°	4.9	3.2	6.4	25.0	47.2	12.4
	700°	2.8	3.4	7.4	34.7	46.2	4.2
	800°	2.8	2.5	9.8	50.8	28.6	4.7
	1100°	4.2	1.4	13.0	60.7	18.8	1.8

In a second paper² they discuss the results obtained by subjecting coals to a series of fractional distillations in a vacuum and determining the compositions of the gases evolved within well defined limits of temperature. They succeeded by prolonged exhaustion at a low temperature, in removing entirely the paraffin-yielding constituents and leaving behind a compound which decomposed at a comparatively high temperature, yielding only hydrogen. They conclude, therefore, that coal is composed largely of two types of compounds, the one unstable, giving no hydrogen, the other more stable yielding hydrogen only.

¹Jour. Soc. Chem. Ind. 5, 2. (1886).

²Jour. Chem. Soc. April, 1911, p. 649.

G. E. Davis¹, discussing the tars formed under different conditions, says that at low temperatures are produced mainly such hydrocarbons as belong to the paraffin series having the general formula $C_n H_{2n+2}$, along with the olefines $C_n H_{2n}$. The lower members of these series are liquid, and, furnished in the pure state, are illuminating and lubricating oils; the higher ones are solid and form commercial paraffin. They are always accompanied by phenols. Liquid products prevail and among the watery substances acetic acid predominates.

If, on the other hand, the coal has been decomposed at a very high temperature, the molecules are grouped quite differently. While olefines and acetylenes occur more or less the paraffins disappear almost entirely with the resultant deposition of carbon.

Some of this carbon set free is deposited in the retort in a compact graphitoidal form; some occurs in a state of extremely fine division in the tar and forms a constituent of the pitch or coke remaining behind. At the same time the action of heat effects molecular condensations by which process compounds of a higher molecular weight are formed, such as naphthalene, anthracene and phenanthrene.

Behrens² found that the tar obtained in the distillation of coal in the ordinary fire-clay gas-retorts (operated at high temperatures) was much richer in benzene, toluene, naphthalene, etc., than the tar made in Pauwel's coke ovens (operated at low temperatures) from the same kind of coal.

Lunge³ thinks that at low temperatures most of the nitrogen of the tar is in the form of aniline and fatty amines (ethylamine, propylamine, amylamine); at high temperatures in the form of pyridine bases, picoline, lutidine, viridine, etc. He admits that the statement needs verification by more detailed investigations. In general, at high temperatures the tendency to complete dissociation becomes far more pronounced; the products approach more and more to free carbon on the one hand and free hydrogen on the other.

Watson Smith⁴ states that naphthalene increases with rise of temperature. This is true also of anthracene, which is then found in the creosote oil coming over before the anthracene oil proper. Carboic acid is also an important constituent.

¹Jour. Soc. Chem. Ind. 5, 2. (1886).

²Dingler's Polyt. Journal 208, 362.

³Coal Tar and Ammonia. p. 26. (1900).

⁴Jour. Soc. Chem. Ind. 8, 950. (1890).

II. STUDIES IN GENERAL ON THE CARBONIZATION OF COAL

F. C. Keighley¹ argues that since the chemical constituents of coals from any horizon are not necessarily indicative of their coking properties, it is reasonable to assume that an important factor determining the coking quality must be one of a physical character and not altogether chemical.

It is known, he says, that the finest coking coals not only are of the bituminous class, but their structure is such that upon fracture they exhibit a fingery or prismatic form and separate vertically, while the more difficult coking coals and the ones of a bituminous character that cannot be coked at all, are of a laminated structure and upon fracture break into cubical form and have a tendency to separate horizontally instead of vertically. This he thinks would indicate that the coking property depends very largely upon the arrangement of the small particles of coal composing the seam. If these lie in the seam with their longer axes horizontal to the bedding of the seam they are unfavorable to the coking process. On the other hand, if they are perpendicular to the strike of the seam, i.e., at right angles with its bedding, the coking tendency is much more pronounced. He suggests that the superiority of Connellsville coke may be due to the structure given it in the process of formation by the peculiar geological movements of the region in which it is found.

M. A. Pishel² suggests a simple practical test for coking coal. Pulverize the coal to 100 mesh in an agate mortar. Pour out the dust and observe its condition. If it adheres strongly to the mortar, it will probably make good coke, he says. If there is little adhesion, coking properties are absent. In his experimental work he tested more than 150 different specimens. Of the four Illinois coals tried, none stuck to the mortar while most of the Eastern coals adhered. He offers no theory to account for this phenomenon.

Groves and Thorp³ classify coals with respect to their coking properties as sand coals, those devoid of coking powers; sinter coals, those possessing it to a relatively slight degree; coking coals, those which produce a good quality of coke, and anthracite.

¹Iron Age. 80-384. Aug. 1907. Mines and Minerals Oct. 1907.

²Econ. Geol. June-July 1908. p. 265-270.

³Chem. Tech. Vol. 1, p. 123 (ed. 1889)

They give the following analytical table made up from the work of Richardson, Regnault and others:

TABLE 16

	(Percentage)		
	C	H	O
Sand coal.....	77	5	18
Sinter coal.....	83	5	12
Coking coal.....	87	5	8
Anthracite.....	95	3	2

TABLE 17

Anthracite.....	80C + 88H + 0
Blanzy sinter.....	80C + 128H + 60
Lancashire cannel sinter	80C + 128H + 30
Mons coking.....	80C + 34CH + 50
Grand Croix-highly coking.....	80C + 112H + 30

It will be observed from Table 16 that the amount of hydrogen in the first three varieties is identical, while the oxygen diminishes as the coking property is developed. The Grand Croix coal (Table 17) has only half the amount of hydrogen contained in the coking coal from Mons. Anthracite, consisting almost entirely of carbon, may be considered a kind of natural coke.

They state in conclusion, however, that Stein of Dresden has shown that coking and non-coking coals may have the same ultimate composition and that simple analyses, therefore, cannot determine absolutely the coking property of the coal. They suggest that the real source of coking lies in a resinoid body or bodies identical in composition with the coke itself.

White and others¹ mention the work of Ste. Clare Deville, consulting chemist of the Paris Gas Company, who, on the basis of results of nearly 2000 tests, divided coals into groups according to the relations of their percentages of oxygen to hydrogen. He found that all coking coals contain a percentage of oxygen approximately twice that of hydrogen.

They reasoned that possibly the artificial application of heat which gives as its first products water and other compounds rich in oxygen, would lower the relatively high oxygen of the non-coking coals and possibly bring them into the coking class. They found, however, that coals which were originally non-coking were not improved in this respect even though the oxygen-

¹Am. Gas Light Jour. 89-921. (1906)

hydrogen ratio was brought down to 2 to 1. The coking coals tested sintered together during the heating and if the resultant mass was heated to redness it retained its shape and gave a good coke. If, however, it was powdered before being heated, it remained a powder.

Dr. Haberman¹, in studying the spontaneous heating of coals, noted the fact that long storage tends to destroy both gasifying and coking properties. He found that those coals that oxidized the most and gave the greatest rise in temperature absorbed the largest quantities of bromine.

Professor Fischer² of Göttingen, working on the same problem, mentions the loss of coking suffered by oxidized coals. He too suggests the bromine absorption test for determining the chemical activity of the fuel.

Parr and Lindgren³ doing work on the weathering of coal at the University of Illinois observed that in volatile matter determinations, samples exposed for several months gave powdery residues instead of coke as in the case when fresh coals were used.

David White⁴, in his bulletin "The Effect of Oxygen in Coal," after discussing the negative calorific value of the oxygen and the transition between various grades of coal due to progressive devolatilization brought about more or less directly by dynamic forces, takes up a study of the relative proportion of oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, in coking coals with special reference to a theory framed to explain the coking quality.

He mentions the work of Regnault⁵ and Bertrand,⁶ who found that the high percentage of volatile matter and the high illuminating value of certain bogheads and oil shales are due to the presence of immense numbers of supposed gelatinous algæ which, in these coals, seem to have exercised a selective attraction for certain bituminous compounds. Likewise, the conditions of accumulation and deposition attending the origin of many coals were doubtless favorable for the mingling of algæ and different animal remains with the debris of higher plant types.

Mr. White thinks it is more than probable that the substances of these lower organisms contributed as ingredients to

¹Schillings Jour. fur Gasbel. 49-419, (1906)

²The Gas World, April 13, 1901.

³Unpublished reports of supplementary studies to Bulletin No. 17, University of Illinois, Engineering Experiment Station. (1911)

⁴Bull. U. S. G. S. 383 (1909)

⁵Regnault, B. Les micro organismes des combustibles fossiles. St. Etienne, 1903.

⁶Bull. Soc. d'hist. Nat. Antun. Vol. 9, 1897, p. 193.

the mass of coal-forming material, and that they, therefore, exerted some influence on the character and quality of the final residues. He considers the higher percentage of bituminous matter in the older and more altered condition of the fuel, due to concentration as the result of devolatilization of the coal by dynamochemical processes, the larger part of the concentration being the result of loss of oxygen, this loss being disproportionately great as compared with that of hydrogen. Thus, the progressive deoxygenation of the organic matter accomplishes bituminization.

Now, he continues, the qualities of fusibility and swelling concurrent with bituminization which appear to characterize fuels known to contain quantities of gelatinous micro-algæ, are also necessary to the coking quality in coals, and he thinks it permissible, therefore, to inquire whether the coking property may not be due to some unascertained proportion of gelatinous algal matter entering into the original mass from which the coal was formed and imparting to it this fusibility and tendency to swell.

While the presence of micro-algal ingredients has been noted in peats and even in some brown coals, yet it is very evident that their detection by microscopical means in the highly metamorphosed coking coals, is so difficult as to be practically impossible. The evidence of chemical analysis must therefore, be called into service. The coals, he says, whose large volatile combustible matter contains relatively the highest hydrogen and the lowest oxygen, thus approaching nearest the bitumen analyses, are those in which the organic remains described as micro-algæ are most predominant and best preserved. If then, in the high volatile coals high bituminization and gelatinous algal ingredients go together and the presence of the latter causes the coal to fuse and swell, we may conclude that high volatile coals that show sufficiently high bituminization will coke by the ordinary process. The degree of bituminization is indicated by the relative excess of hydrogen as compared with the diminished oxygen in dry coal and is expressed by the ratio H:O.

Data covering the tests of over 300 coals from different localities furnished by the U. S. Geological Survey are given. It was found that those coals having a H:O ratio of 59 or more, coke by the ordinary commercial process. Nearly all below 59 and above 55 so far as tested, make a coke. Those below 55 us-

ually give a poor and dark product. The best cokes obtained by the ordinary process were made from coals having a ratio of 60 or over. It was noted however that with coals with a fixed carbon value of over 79 per cent the rule breaks down.

He remarks that his hypothesis appears to harmonize with the tendency of coking coals to cohere when reduced to fine powder, discussed by M. A. Pishel.

O. Boudouard¹ took up the study of coals with the specific purpose of determining the causes of coking and selected for experiments samples of (1) English anthracite, (2) Courrieres ($\frac{1}{4}$ bituminous), (3) Belgian forge coal, (4) Forge coal of unknown origin which has lain in the laboratory several years, (5) Bruay ($\frac{3}{4}$ bituminous), (6) Coal of unknown origin, (7) Lignite.

The following table gives the results of the approximate analyses:

TABLE 18
COMPOSITION OF COALS BEFORE TREATMENT

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fixed carbon.....	88.6	89.5	70.5	79.1	39.3	51.4	37.3
Ash.....	2.5	1.6	4.6	2.6	3.1	3.3	4.2
Volatile matter.....	8.8	8.8	21.8	18.1	57.6	46.2	58.4
Character of coke.....	powdery	powdery	hard	hard	hard	slightly caked	powdery
Hardness ²	0	0	3	3	3	0	0

These coals were successively subjected for periods of 105 hr. each to the action of air at 15° and 100°. After the first treatment little change in the coal and in the appearance and character of the coke was noted except that No. 6 and 7 showed traces of humic acid. In contrast with this, after being heated at 100°, none had retained their coking powers and all but (1) and (2) contained humic acid. A marked increase in weight due to oxygen absorption was observed, amounting in some cases to nearly 5 per cent.

He further treated 25 grams of each of the coals studied with 150 grams of concentrated nitric acid for a period of 2½ months. Analyses of the residues gave the following results:

¹Bull de Ca. Sec. Chim. 5 (series 4) 365-39 (1909).

²The relative hardness of the coke is indicated by the figures 3, 2, 1, 0,—3 denoting a hard compact coke, 0, a powdery residue.

TABLE 19
COMPOSITION OF COALS AFTER TREATMENT WITH NITRIC ACID

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Per cent change in weight . . .	+ 15.6	+ 26.0	+ 6.4	+ 20.4	+ 17.2	— 14.0	— 36.8
Fixed carbon . . .	68.1	54.7	56.5	51.5	49.6	43.2	39.4
Ash	1.8	.41	1.5	6.1	1.6	.72	.61
Vol. matter . .	30.1	44.8	41.9	42.2	48.7	56.0	59.9
Appearance of coke	powdered	powdered	powdered	powdered	traces of agglome- rate	traces of agglome- rate	powdered
Humic Acid . .	0	0	15 per cent	8 per cent	50 per cent	40 per cent	27 per cent

Organic solvents such as ligroin, pyridine, benzene, carbon disulphide, carbon tetrachloride and the like, modified in no appreciable way the quality of the coke produced. Concentrated sulphuric acid destroyed the coking power; concentrated hydrochloric acid had no effect.

In none of these coals did humic acid exist before treatment and since its presence was always constant in the same oxidized coals which had in the process lost their coking powers, working on the theory that the carbohydrates were responsible for the origin of the acid, he found that starch or sugar treated with bromine water, for instance, yielded humic acid much like that obtained from coal.

It is probable, he thinks, that the hydrocarbonaceous substances giving rise to this acid do not exist in a single form but in a state of great condensation, and polymerization is a result of the decomposition of the living matter, the principal characteristics of this series of processes being the disintegration of the plant tissues and the accumulation of carbon at the expense of hydrogen and oxygen.

In his comparative studies of natural and oxidized coals, he noted that the production of a very small quantity of humic acid (less than 1 per cent) marked the disappearance of the coking qualities of the original sample.

In this connection the theories advanced by Professor Lewes, already referred to, on page 25, are of interest, harmonizing as they do with Boudouard's work and presenting some of the most modern lines of thought on this subject.

Dennstedt and Bunz¹ hold with Boudouard that humic acids

¹Zeitsch. f. ang. Chem. 21, 1825. (1908).

are the ultimate oxidation products of coals and the most inflammable coals are those that produce the largest quantities of the acid.

The exact nature and composition of the so-called humic acids, however, seem to be unknown. Boudouard¹ quotes the results of several experimenters who produced the substance by treating sugar with acids. The empirical formulas (no structural formulas are attempted,) range from $C_{24}H_{18}O_9$ (Stein) to $C_{40}H_{24}O_{12}$ (Mulder). He himself proposes $C_{18}H_{14}O_9$ as the composition of humic products he obtained by extracting oxidized coal with potassium hydroxide.

W. C. Anderson in studying the varying coking tendencies of a number of Scotch coals, concluded that cementation is caused by the decomposition of two classes of substances: (1) resinous materials soluble in caustic potash, which break down on rapid ignition; and (2) non-saponifiable substances, some of which were volatile at 300° , others being stable at this temperature.

III. SUMMARY OF OPINIONS

A very brief review of the literature covering the decomposition that takes place at low temperatures in the distillation of coal, is sufficient to prove to the student that the problem in all its phases is distinctly modern. A glance at the bibliography will show that few, if any, references date back more than ten years and that most of the publications on the subject have appeared within the last two or three. Indeed, Burgess and Wheeler² writing in 1910, remark that "previous work has been very scanty". Furthermore, almost without exception, those investigators who have already made reports announce that their first articles are more or less incomplete and that they expect to continue along the same lines of study.

While the development of the subject is evidently still in its infancy, yet results from different sources are in many cases entirely consistent. Of particular interest in that it bears a close relationship to the problem of smoke prevention, is the fact, mentioned by nearly all authorities, that the heavy smoke-producing benzines and paraffins of high carbon content are given off at

¹Bull. de la Soc. Chim. 5 (series 4) 378. (1909).

Jour. Soc. Chem. Ind., 17-1013. Nov., 1898.

²Jour. Chem. Soc. 97-1917 (1910)

low temperatures and are practically eliminated at 500°. Attempts to separate and estimate the higher homologues of methane contained in early distillates, however, have not been entirely successful on account of a lack of adequate methods of gas analysis. Cady and McFarland¹, using liquid air, got perhaps the best results but even their scheme leaves much to be desired. Writers reporting the paraffin content of the gases studied therefore have been obliged to estimate the heavier members as "ethane", or, using the formula $C_n H_{2n+2}$, to give average values of n .

It is generally agreed further, that as temperatures rise above 500°, methane and hydrogen are the principal gas constituents, being decomposition products of not only the coal itself but of some of the gases given off at the lower temperatures. Below 400°, hydrogen is present in very small amounts. It seems fairly well established, therefore, that the density and, consequently, the calorific value of a gas varies inversely with the temperature at which it is evolved and that a very moderate heating of the coal is sufficient to remove enough of the smoke producing elements to make the combustion of the residue clean and economical.

With a very small amount of work done in determining the character of the low temperature tar distillates, a fruitful field is left for future investigation. Paraffin oils, valuable for lubricating and power generating, seem to predominate, while the equally important aromatic derivatives, as anthracene, are present to a less extent than in the high temperature runs.

The investigations of Parr and Francis prove that coal, modified by the application of moderate heat gains valuable properties and that it retains a high calorific value. In the use of certain types of coal, however, such as those of the central west, the problem of putting the residues into marketable condition demands a solution before the process can be made an economic success.

Much has been written in attempts to explain the causes of coking, or at least to define the conditions that govern it. From the work of Parr, Chamberlain, Boudouard, and others, who have studied the reactions taking place at low temperatures, it has been proved that oxygen absorption goes on rapidly when fresh coal is exposed to the atmosphere. It has been shown

¹Jour. Am. Chem. Soc. 29—1523 (1907)

further that this absorption weakens or destroys altogether any coking properties that the original coal may have. In other words a high oxygen-hydrogen ratio marks the absence of fusibility and cementation.

The structures of the organic compounds of the coal which furnish the cementing material for coke and which are apparently attacked by oxygen, have not been determined and seem to vary somewhat in different types of coals. However they yield, on oxidation, humic acids of varying composition which decompose into powdery residues. Because of the complex nature of these substances and the difficulty experienced in isolating and identifying them, the matter of coking is still an open problem and the explanations advanced are largely hypothetical.

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Vol. X

OCTOBER 28, 1912

No. 9

[Entered, Feb. 14, 1902, at Urbana, Ill., as second-class matter under Act of Congress of July 16, 1894]

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BULLETIN No. 61

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CHARACTERISTICS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE SERIES TRANSFORMER

BY
A. R. ANDERSON
AND
H. R. WOODROW



UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

URBANA, ILLINOIS
PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY

PRICE: TWENTY-FIVE CENTS
EUROPEAN AGENT
CHAPMAN AND HALL, LTD., LONDON

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

BULLETIN No. 61

OCTOBER, 1912

CHARACTERISTICS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE SERIES TRANSFORMER

BY

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*Formerly graduate students in Electrical Engineering at the University of Illinois.

CHARACTERISTICS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE SERIES TRANSFORMER

I. INTRODUCTION

1. *Uses of the Series Transformer.*—High potential distribution and the large currents carried by feeders have made the use of series transformers, or so-called “current transformers,” imperative. Where high voltages are used it would be a source of considerable danger to bring the potential of the distribution system to the switchboard and controlling apparatus. The use of the series transformer, in connection with the potential transformer, makes it possible to meter the power and control such system without handling voltages which are dangerous to life. Furthermore, if live potentials were brought to the switchboard, the proper insulation of instruments and controlling apparatus would be accomplished only with considerable difficulty and expense. Again in the present day system of distribution, even where the voltage may be so low as to overrule the above objection, the feeders leading from the station may carry such large currents as to make the use of series transformers a decided convenience. Obviously it is much cheaper and easier to run small wires to instruments requiring but a low value of current than to bring large feeders to a board on which are mounted cumbersome instruments of sufficient capacity to carry the full live current. The demands of convenience and safety, then, have placed the series transformer in its present position of importance.

In general, the function of the series transformer is to furnish a current in a circuit not metallically connected with the main circuit, which current shall bear a definite constant ratio to the main current, and shall be 180° out of phase with it. The uses to which this secondary current is put may be divided into two classes: (1) to give indications in metering instruments, and (2) to furnish power for the operation of regulators, time-limit relays, and like controlling apparatus. But with the series transformer the ideal is never completely realized, and consequently the above function is but imperfectly performed.

2. *Scope of Bulletin.*—It is the purpose of this bulletin to study the imperfections of the series transformer, to determine how and to what extent certain constants influence its operation, and to deduce certain general characteristics. The first part of the bulletin will be devoted to a discussion of the fundamental principles of the series transformer and the representation by vector diagrams of its operation. A deduction of current relations by the method of complex quantities, and

a discussion of conclusions that may be derived therefrom will follow. The derivation of current relations by the use of instantaneous current values will then be given. In this last named part particular stress will be laid upon the application of the current transformer for the purpose of recording transient phenomena. A comparison of the results obtained for stable condition by the two methods and a general summary will be given in conclusion.

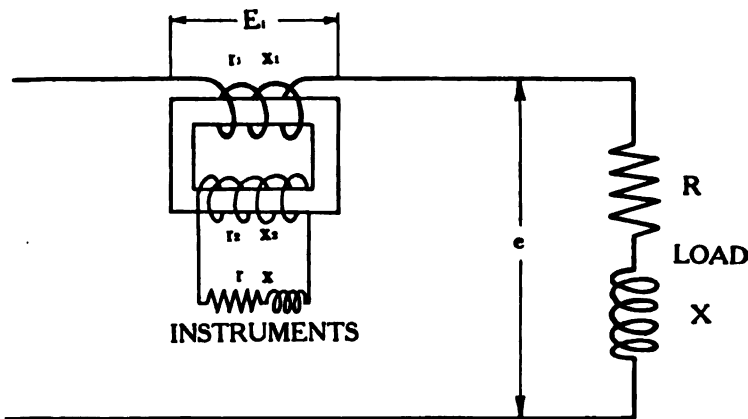


FIG. 1. SYMBOLS USED FOR CONSTANTS OF CIRCUIT

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SERIES TRANSFORMER

3. *General Features of the Series Transformer.*—In construction the series transformer does not greatly differ from the ordinary power potential transformer, inasmuch as both consist essentially of two electrical circuits interlinked by a magnetic circuit. In the potential transformer for furnishing power there is, of course, a variation of primary current with secondary current; in fact, the primary current is a function of the secondary current. In the current transformer, however, the effect of the secondary current upon the primary current is so very small as to be negligible. The primary current is determined by the constants of the main circuit, and is taken to be independent of variations in secondary load and current. Herein then, lies the basic element of distinction between the power potential transformer and the current transformer. This dependence of the primary current upon the constants of the main circuit only, and its independence of variations in secondary current, is the starting point for the theory of the current transformer which follows. Naturally, this difference in operation between the two types of transformers makes a difference in their design, and just how and why some of the design constants differ will be pointed

out later after a development of the theory has made their bearing on the operation of the transformer clearer.

There are certain facts about the series transformer which are generally known among men who have anything at all to do with it. It is known that the series transformer consists of two coils metallically separate, wound on a laminated iron core; that the coil connected in the line generally has fewer turns than the secondary coil across which the instruments are connected, and that the ratio of the turns is about in inverse proportion to the ratio of the currents. It is known that it is dangerous to leave the secondary open-circuited because if a current flows in the primary, high voltages will be induced in the open-circuited secondary and there will be high heating of the iron core which may cause disaster. It is also known that slight variations in secondary load (or resistance and reactance) do not change the transformation ratio to a very great extent, and that the ratio is nearly constant for all values of primary current within a given range. It is also known that when used in connection with wattmeters annoyance is often caused by a certain angle of phase displacement from the ideal position. These very nearly constant factors, however, such as current ratio and phase angle, are very often subject to great variations, and in the following discussion it is proposed to investigate the relations between these factors and the constants of the transformer and load; to determine how and to what extent they are influenced by these constants.

4. *Vector Diagrams for the Series Transformer.*—At the outset it is thought advantageous to study the vector diagram representation of the current transformer in order to gain familiarity with its operation. Fig. 1 is given to indicate the constants represented by the different symbols. Fig. 2 is a simple vector diagram of a series transformer having no core loss. This would be the case with a transformer having an air core. The voltage e across the load is taken as the reference vector, and the primary current I' lags behind it an angle θ dependent upon the power-factor of the load. $(\tan \theta = \frac{X}{R})$ In phase with I' is

ϕ' the total primary flux, or the flux which could be set up in the existing magnetic circuit by the primary ampere-turns if no counteracting force were present. A part of this flux, ϕ_L' , however, is set up in a path not interlinked by the secondary coil, that is, it does not thread the secondary coil, and hence has no effect on the secondary circuit.*

*The leakage flux of the primary, it is readily seen, acts only as a reactance in the primary circuit and does not affect the ratio of the currents in the transformer. Since, however, the primary leakage reactance is an inherent constant of the transformer, it is thought well to introduce it here for the completeness of the discussion.

It is oftentimes convenient to draw the vector diagram using currents in place of fluxes, as is done in Fig. 3. If the ratio of turns is other than 1 to 1, it will be necessary to consider the magnitude of the current vectors given in ampere turns, or what amounts to the same thing, if the primary current vector is drawn to scale the secondary current should be multiplied by the ratio of the number of secondary turns to primary turns to give the magnitude of the secondary current vector. The resulting current vectors will then be in terms of primary current directly, and it will not be necessary to divide by the number of turns as would be the case if the vectors were scaled off as ampere-turns.

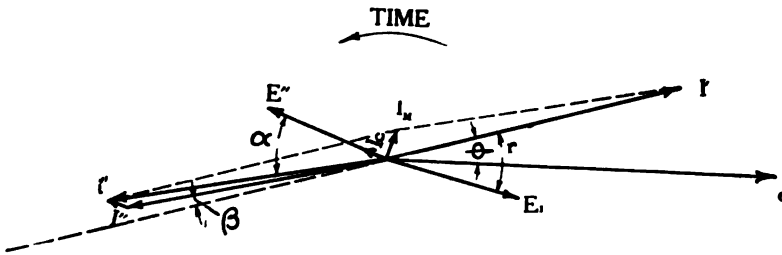


FIG. 3. VECTOR DIAGRAM FOR CURRENTS IN TRANSFORMER WITH ZERO CORE LOSS

Fig. 3 is a vector diagram of a current transformer with an iron core, having consequently some core loss. It is very similar to the diagram in Fig. 2 with the exception that the flux vectors are plotted as currents, and the core loss component I_0 is taken into consideration. Core loss represents power dissipated in a secondary circuit, and requires in phase components of current and electromotive force. Since the dissipation of energy takes place in a secondary circuit and we have already drawn a vector for secondary e.m.f. the current vector I_0 in phase with E'' will give the required representation of energy dissipation. This current I is consumed in the core, and hence is not available in the useful secondary circuit. Subtracting I_0 from i'' gives the true secondary current I'' as represented in the diagram. The angles α and β correspond to the angles α and β of Fig. 2. In both Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, E_1 is the electromotive force across the primary and γ the angle that it makes with the primary current. From Fig. 3 the effect of core loss is readily seen. It decreases the secondary current I'' , and with an inductive secondary circuit it decreases also the phase angle β . Since it is impossible to construct a transformer which has not at least the secondary reactance due

to leakage flux, it must follow that in a commercial transformer core loss has both of the above effects. If these were its only effects it might be thought, ignoring efficiency, that core loss is desirable. But it will be seen later that hysteresis loss is accompanied by a variation in core reluctance that is extremely undesirable so far as regulation is concerned.

5. *Formulas for Current Ratio and Phase Angle—Use of Complex Quantities.*—With these vector diagrams in mind we may proceed with a mathematical discussion of the current transformer by the use of complex quantities. In the following derivation it will be considered for simplicity, that permeability of the iron is constant. The error thus introduced is not so great as might at first be expected, due to the fact that the iron in a current transformer is generally worked at a very low density on the straighter portion of the saturation curve. However, the assumption of constant permeability still makes it possible to discuss from the resulting equations the effects of variation in permeability. If the permeability is taken constant the hysteresis loop vanishes, and the only remaining core loss is the eddy current loss. With sufficiently careful lamination and at the low value of flux density used, this loss may be very small. Indeed in a commercial current transformer the core losses are very small. Neglecting then for the present all core losses, the following derivation will correspond to the vector diagram of Fig. 2 and will be rigid for a transformer with an air core. Let a sine wave of e.m.f. e instantaneous value $= e\sqrt{2} \sin \omega t$, be impressed upon the circuit as indicated in Fig. 1. Then since the effect of the secondary current upon the primary current is neglected

$$I' = \frac{e}{R - jX} = i + ji_1 \quad \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

where $R - jX$ is the load impedance.

$$\text{where} \quad i = \frac{eR}{R^2 + X^2} \quad \text{and} \quad i_1 = \frac{eX}{R^2 + X^2}$$

The flux set up by the primary current or the total primary flux is proportional to the primary current and in phase with it or

$$\Phi' = K_1 N_1 I' \times 10^8 \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

$$\text{where } K_1 = \frac{.4\pi}{\rho_1} \times 10^8; (\rho_1 = \text{combined reluctance of iron circuit})$$

*In all these following equations involving complex quantity, time is considered the independent variable and is represented by counter clock-wise rotation. The inductive impedance is $R - jX$ and thus there is a lagging current $I = i + ji_1$.

and leakage path), and N_1 is the number of primary turns. Of Φ' a certain part known as leakage flux does not thread the secondary, but produces a reactive e. m. f. in the primary, which is given by the following expression:

$$e_r' = j \frac{2\pi f N_1 \Phi' L}{10^8} \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

It should perhaps be pointed out that the value given above for electromotive force, current, and flux, as well as those to follow, are all effective values.

Equation (3) gives an expression for reactive primary e.m.f. in terms of leakage flux. But the primary leakage reactance x_1 also gives the value of this e.m.f., as follows:

$$e_r' = j I' x_1 \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

Combining (3) and (4) we obtain

$$\frac{2\pi f N_1 \Phi_L'}{10^8} = I' x_1$$

or
$$\Phi_L' = \frac{I' x_1}{2\pi f N_1} 10^8 = \frac{I' x_1}{\omega N_1} 10^8 \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

An expression for the magnetizing flux Φ_M may be obtained by starting with the induced secondary e.m.f. This e.m.f. must be sufficient to overcome all of the impedance of the secondary circuit including the leakage x_2 . Hence, we may write

$$E'' = I'' Z'' \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

But the induced secondary e.m.f. is dependent upon the magnetizing flux in the following relation:

$$E'' = j \frac{2\pi f N_2 \Phi_M}{10^8} \dots\dots\dots (7)$$

Combining (6) and (7) an expression for magnetizing flux in terms of secondary current and impedance is obtained as follows:

$$j \frac{2 \pi f N_2 \Phi_M}{10^8} = I'' Z''$$

Whence,

$$\Phi_M = -j \frac{I'' Z''}{\omega N_2} 10^8 \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

The total secondary flux is proportional to the secondary current and in phase with it, or

$$\Phi'' = K_2 N_2 I'' \times 10^8 \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

where $K_2 = \frac{4\pi}{\rho_2} \times 10^8$; (ρ_2 = combined reluctance of iron circuit and leakage path).

In a manner similar to that for obtaining equation (5) for the primary leakage flux, the following expression for the secondary leakage flux is obtained,

$$\Phi_{L''} = \frac{I'' x_2}{\omega N_2} 10^8 \dots \dots \dots (10)$$

If we subtract from the total primary flux the primary leakage flux we obtain what may be called the useful primary flux. Similarly the difference between the total secondary flux and the secondary leakage flux gives the useful secondary flux. The sum of these two useful fluxes then gives the magnetizing flux, or expressed in the form of an equation,

$$\Phi' - \Phi_{L'} + \Phi'' - \Phi_{L''} = \Phi_M \dots \dots \dots (11)$$

which may be written

$$\Phi' - \Phi_{L'} + \Phi'' - \Phi_{L''} - \Phi_M = 0 \dots \dots \dots (12)$$

Substituting in (12) the expressions for the various fluxes given by equations (2), (5), (9), (10), and (8), and dividing through by 10^8 , we obtain

$$K_1 N_1 I' - \frac{I' x_1}{\omega N_1} + K_2 N_2 I'' - \frac{I'' x_2}{\omega N_2} + j \frac{I'' Z''}{\omega N_2} = 0 \dots (13)$$

$$\text{or} \quad (K_1 N_1 - \frac{x_1}{\omega N_1}) I' + (K_2 N_2 - \frac{x_2}{\omega N_2} + j \frac{Z''}{\omega N_2}) I'' = 0 \dots (13')$$

$$\text{Whence,} \quad I'' = - \frac{(K_1 N_1^2 \omega - x_1) \omega N_2}{\omega N_1 (K_2 N_2^2 \omega - x_2 + j Z'')} I' \dots \dots \dots (14)$$

$$\text{But} \quad Z'' = (r_2 + r) - j(x_2 + x)$$

$$\text{And} \quad j Z'' = (x_2 + x) + j(r_2 + r) \dots \dots \dots (15)$$

Substituting (15) in (14),

$$I'' = - \frac{(K_1 N_1^2 \omega - x_1) N_2}{N_1 [K_2 N_2^2 \omega + x + j(r_2 + r)]} I' \dots \dots \dots (16)$$

which might better be written

$$I'' = - \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{(K_1 N_1^2 \omega - x_1)}{(K_2 N_2^2 \omega + x)^2 + (r_2 + r)^2} [K_2 N_2^2 \omega + x - j(r_2 + r)] I' \quad (17)$$

The ratio of secondary current to primary current then becomes

$$\frac{I''}{I'} = - \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{(K_1 N_1^2 \omega - x_1)}{\sqrt{(K_2 N_2^2 \omega + x)^2 + (r_2 + r)^2}} \dots \dots (18)$$

Equation (18) may be reduced as follows: K_1 and K_2 represent the primary and secondary magnetic conductances respectively. If $F = \frac{0.4\pi}{\rho} \times 10^{-8}$ represents the conductance of the iron path, and k_1 and k_2 represent the magnetic conductances of primary and secondary leakage paths respectively, then for K_1 and K_2 in equation (18) may be substituted:

$$K_1 = F + k_1$$

$$K_2 = F + k_2$$

$$\frac{I''}{I'} = - \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{(FN_1^2 \omega + k_1 N_1^2 \omega - x_1)}{\sqrt{(FN_2^2 \omega + k_2 N_2^2 \omega + x)^2 + (r_2 + r)^2}}$$

$$k_1 N_1^2 \omega = x_1$$

$$k_2 N_2^2 \omega = x_2$$

$$\frac{I''}{I'} = - \frac{N_2}{N} \frac{F N_1^2 \omega}{\sqrt{(F N_1^2 \omega + x_2 + x)^2 + (r_2 + r)^2}} \dots (19)$$

which shows the dependence of current ratio upon the primary leakage reactance. To show more clearly the relation between the currents and the number of turns equation (19) may be reduced to the form:

$$\frac{I''}{I'} = - \frac{N_1}{N_2} \frac{F \omega}{\sqrt{(F \omega + \frac{x_2 + x}{N_1^2})^2 + (\frac{r_2 + r}{N_2})^2}} \dots (20)$$

from which it is seen that with no secondary resistance or reactance the ratio of currents is inversely as the ratio of the number of turns. Furthermore, the lower the reluctance of the iron circuit, and consequently the greater the value of F , the higher the frequency, and the greater the number of secondary turns, the more nearly does the transformation ratio equal the ratio of the number of turns.

Equation (20) is useful in showing certain relations, but equation (18) may be reduced in another way which yields results of interest. From equation (2)

$$\Phi' = K_1 N_1 I' \times 10^8$$

$$\text{and} \quad N_1 \Phi' = K_1 N_1^2 I' \times 10^8$$

$$\text{But} \quad N_1 \Phi' = L_1 I' \times 10^8$$

$$\text{Whence} \quad K_1 N_1^2 = L_1$$

$$\text{and} \quad K_1 N_1^2 \omega = L_1 \omega = X_1 \dots \dots \dots (21)$$

Where X_1 is the total inductive reactance of the primary coil.

$$\text{Similarly,} \quad K_2 N_2^2 \omega = X_2 \dots \dots \dots (22)$$

If the primary leakage reactance x_1 be subtracted from the total primary reactance X_1 , and the difference multiplied by the ratio of the secondary turns to the primary turns the result will be the mutual inductive reactance X_m or

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} (X_1 - x_1) = X_M \dots \dots \dots (23)$$

Now substituting (21), (22) and (23), in (18), the following expression is obtained,

$$\frac{I''}{I'} = - \frac{X_M}{\sqrt{(X_2 + x)^2 + (r_2 + r)^2}} \dots \dots \dots (24)$$

From (24) it is seen that with zero resistance of the secondary coil and load, the ratio of transformation is as the ratio of the mutual inductive reactance to the total reactance of the secondary circuit.

From equation (20) it is seen that the effect of increasing the secondary resistance or reactance is to decrease the secondary current; that the effect of increasing the frequency or increasing F , which means decreasing the magnetic reluctance, is to increase the secondary current. Equation (20) further shows that a large number of secondary turns makes variations in frequency, permeability, and secondary resistance and reactance less effective in influencing the transformation ratio, and hence points to the desirability of a large number of secondary turns.

Referring again to equation (17) it is seen that the phase angle between the secondary current and the projected primary current is

$$\beta = \arctan \frac{r_2 + r}{K_2 N_2^2 \omega + x} = \arctan \frac{r_2 + r}{FN_2^2 \omega + x_2 + x} \dots (25)$$

$$\text{or } \beta = \arctan \frac{r_2 + r}{X_2 + x} \dots \dots \dots (25')$$

Stating equation (25') in words the tangent of the phase angles is directly proportional to the total secondary resistance, and inversely proportional to the total secondary reactance.

If it is desired to study the current ratio from the design constants of a transformer, equation (18) will be found the more convenient; if it is desired to study this ratio from data taken experimentally, equation (24) may perhaps be used more conveniently. The equations for phase angles are so simple that there would be no trouble in using either one or the other.

As an example a transformer having the following constants may be considered:

$$r_1 = .0058 \text{ ohms.}$$

$$x_1 = .058 \text{ ohms at } 60\sim$$

$$K = .000015$$

$$F = .00001425$$

$$N_1 = 14$$

$$N_2 = 133$$

$$r_2 = 1 \text{ ohm}$$

$$x_1 = K N_1^2 \omega = 1.11 \text{ ohms at } 60\sim$$

$$x_2 = K N_2^2 \omega = 100 \text{ ohms at } 60\sim$$

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = 9.5$$

$$X_M = \frac{N_2}{N_1} (X_1 - x_1) = 10 \text{ ohms at } 60\sim$$

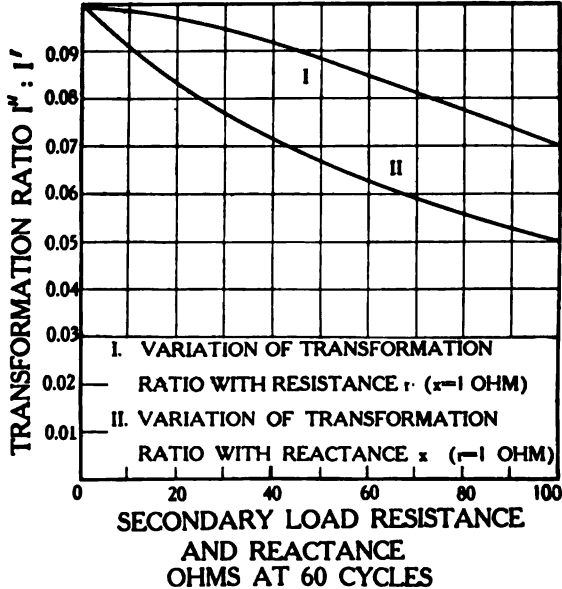


FIG. 4. EFFECT OF SECONDARY LOAD RESISTANCE AND REACTANCE ON TRANSFORMATION RATIO

Taking the secondary load reactance equal to 1 ohm, we may study the effect of secondary load resistance upon the transformation ratio. Fig. 4 Curve I. shows the relation between the transformation ratio and secondary load resistance. It is seen that for reasonable values of resistance (say up to 5 ohms) the ratio is but little affected. Beyond 10 ohms, however, an increase in the resistance results in quite an appreciable decrease in the value of secondary current, and the rate of decrease becomes greater with increased resistance. If the secondary load resistance be taken as 1 ohm, the effect of secondary load reactance upon the transformation ratio may be studied. Fig. 4 Curve II. shows the variation of the transformation ratio with secondary load reactance. It is seen that the ratio is very appreciably decreased by increasing the reactance and that the ratio of decrease is greatest for low values of reactance. Comparing then secondary resistance and reactance as regards their effect upon the transformation ratio, it may be said that for reasonable values the effect of increasing the former is to decrease but negligibly the ratio, whereas an increase in the latter results in a very considerable decrease of the ratio.

Taking the secondary load reactance equal to 1 ohm at 60 cycles, and choosing three values of secondary load resistance, viz., 1 ohm, 10 ohms, and 50 ohms, three curves were plotted, one for each value of resistance, showing the effect of varying the frequency upon the transformation ratio. These curves are given in Fig. 5. An inspection of these curves shows that for high values of frequency the effect of variation in frequency upon the transformation ratio becomes negligible, and also that the lower the secondary resistance, the lower the frequency at which the ratio becomes practically constant. With 1 ohm secondary load resistance it is seen that the ratio is practically constant above 25 cycles. With reasonably low secondary resistance then it may be concluded that the effect of frequency variation, within commercial limits, upon the transformation ratio is quite small. It should not be forgotten, however, that below a certain critical frequency for a given value of secondary resistance decreasing the frequency will result in a very rapid decrease of the transformation ratio.

The effect of secondary load resistance on the phase angle β will be considered next. Taking the secondary load reactance x equal to 1, the curve shown in Fig. 6, was plotted showing the variation of phase angle with the secondary load resistance. It is seen that the increase in phase angle is practically proportional to the increase in resistance for reasonable values of r . By taking the secondary load resistance equal to unity, the variation of phase angle with secondary load reactance may be studied. Fig. 7 shows the relation between these two quantities. It is

noted that increasing the secondary reactance decreases the phase angle, the ratio of decrease being almost constant for reasonable values of x . The effect of x in decreasing the phase angle, however, is not nearly as great as the effect of r in increasing it. As shown by the curves, a given change in x changes the phase angle by less than 2% of that caused by an equivalent change in r .

By taking secondary load resistance equal to 1 ohm, and secondary load reactance equal to 1 ohm at 60 cycles, Fig. 8 was drawn showing the effect of frequency on the magnitude of the phase angle. This curve shows that the phase angle is very sensitive to changes in frequency within the range of commercial frequencies, the phase angle at 25 cycles being more than twice as great as at 60 cycles and over five times as great as at 133 cycles.

6. *Formulas for Current Ratio and Phase Angle of Series Transformers with Iron Cores.*—Throughout the above discussion zero core loss and constant magnetic reluctance have been assumed. In other words the above discussion applies rigidly to a transformer with an air core. The commercial series transformer, however, has an iron core. As was pointed out previously, due to the low flux density in the core and careful lamination, the core loss in such a transformer is very small; so small in fact, as to be of no consequence in affecting the validity of the foregoing discussion. In using an iron core, however, there is an effect more objectionable than the hysteretic core loss, viz., the accompanying variation in core reluctance.

An examination of equation (19) shows that with given constants and frequency, the ratio of secondary current to primary current is constant, independent of the value of primary current. This is true of an air core transformer where the permeability of the core, and consequently the factor F , are constant. But in a transformer with an iron core the permeability and consequently the factor F varies with the flux density. Since the flux density varies with the primary current, it must follow that the factor F is a function of the primary current, and consequently it is not to be expected that the ratio of secondary current to primary current will be constant for all values of primary current in a transformer with an iron core. In order to determine the nature of the variation in F and the consequent variation in the current ratio, it will be necessary to consider that portion of the saturation curve around which the transformer operates. In Fig. 9 Curve I. is given an assumed saturation curve. The scales of the co-ordinates are not given because they are not important for our purpose. The essential thing that concerns us is the shape of the saturation curve.

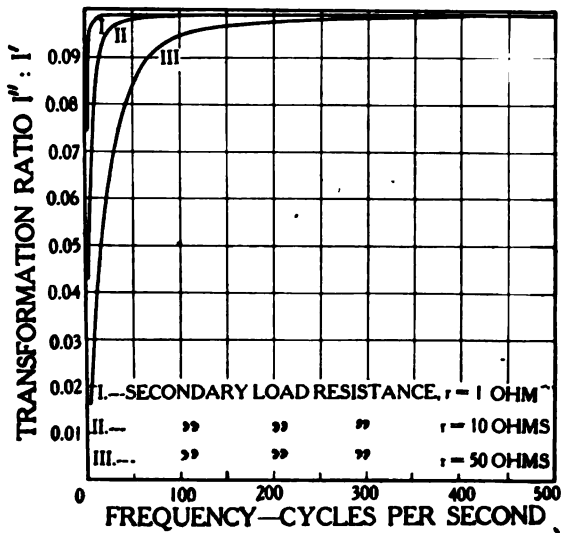


FIG. 5. EFFECT OF FREQUENCY ON TRANSFORMATION RATIO

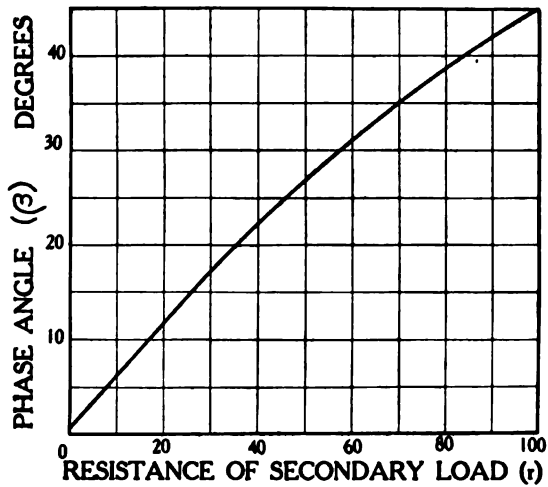


FIG. 6. EFFECT OF SECONDARY LOAD RESISTANCE OF PHASE ANGLE

It will be remembered that the factor F is given by the expression:

$$F = \frac{.4\pi}{\rho} \times 10^8$$

where ρ is the reluctance of the iron circuit. Then we may write

$$F = \frac{.4\pi a \mu}{l} \times 10^8 \dots\dots\dots(26)$$

where a is the average cross section and l the length of the iron circuit. Again for a given transformer, this may be written

$$F = \text{Constant} \times \mu \dots\dots\dots(27)$$

From the saturation curve a curve may be derived whose ordinates are proportional to the permeability μ by dividing the ordinates of the saturation curve by corresponding abscissas, and plotting the quotients as ordinates of the new curve. From (27) the ordinates of this new curve will also be proportional to F , and by properly choosing the scale it will be possible to so plot it that the value of F corresponding to any point on the saturation curve may be directly read from it. It will be seen how this may be done.

The point of operation on the saturation curve depends upon the voltage that must be induced in the secondary to send the secondary current through the secondary impedance. This voltage is of course directly proportional to the secondary current, and to the impedance of the secondary circuit. For a given frequency the flux is proportional to the voltage. If the normal secondary load then is known and the full load secondary current, the flux for this condition may be computed from the relation.

$$\Phi_m = \frac{I'' Z''}{\omega N_2} 10^8 \dots\dots\dots(28)$$

which is obtained from equation (8) by dropping the complex quantity symbols. This establishes a point on the saturation curve, as denoted by A in Fig. 4. From the saturation curve the value of permeability μ at this point may be found, and knowing the dimension of the iron circuit F may be calculated from equation (26). This value of F is then laid off to scale as an ordinate through point A , and the other ordinates are plotted proportionally, as explained above from equation (27). This gives Curve II of Fig. 9. As an example, let the normal secondary load for the transformer under consideration be $r = 1$ ohm and $x = 1$ ohm, and let the value given for F apply to the point of normal full load

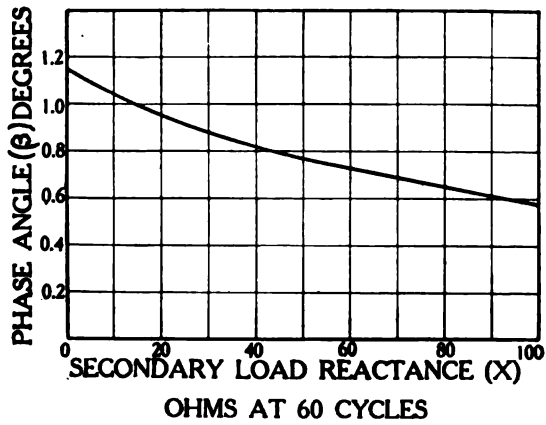


FIG. 7. EFFECT OF SECONDARY LOAD REACTANCE ON PHASE ANGLE

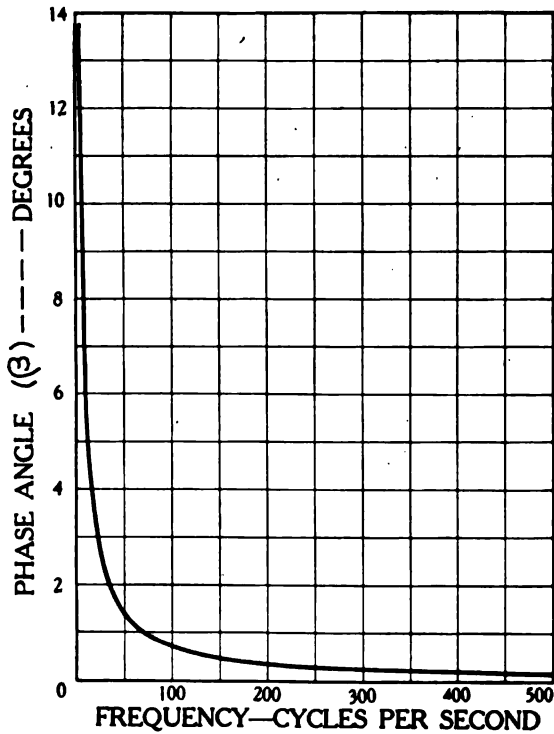


FIG. 8. EFFECT OF FREQUENCY ON PHASE ANGLE

operation indicated by A in Fig. 9. Curve II of Fig. 9 gives the values F at other points on the saturation curve. Let the problem of plotting a curve showing the variation of current ratio with primary current be considered.

It is known that with constant secondary load the variations in secondary current and induced voltage are proportional, and that therefore, the flux is proportional to the secondary current. For any percentage of full load secondary current then the corresponding point on the saturation curve may be found from A, Fig. 9 by direct proportion. Going up along the ordinate from the point thus found to Curve II, the corresponding value of F is obtained. This value of F is substituted in equation (19), and the ratio $\frac{I''}{I'}$ calculated. From this ratio and the value of secondary current the corresponding primary current in per cent of full load primary current may be determined, and thus a point on the required curve established. This is done for a sufficient number of values of secondary current to enable a smooth curve to be drawn through the points obtained. Table 1 gives a convenient tabulation for these computations, and Fig. 10 gives the result. It is seen that above 60% of full load primary current the ratio is very nearly constant, and that below 40% it falls off very rapidly. The variation in current ratio with primary current may be more clearly shown by plotting as ordinates the difference between the ratio for a given value of primary current and the ratio for full load primary current expressed in percent of full load primary current. In Fig. 11 such a curve, corresponding to Fig. 10, is shown by a full line. For the purpose of general comparison with the theoretical curve, there is also shown in Fig. 11, by a dotted line, a curve obtained experimentally. No unusual precision was used in obtaining the data for this curve, the currents being measured simply by two ammeters. The very close similarity of the two curves is apparent. It is to be expected that the magnitude of the ordinates, and even the shape of such curves from different transformers will differ even more than these do, inasmuch as they depend not only upon the point of operation on the saturation curve, but also upon the shape of the saturation curve, especially upon the prominence of the first bend, indicated by B in Fig. 9. Since there is very considerable variation in saturation curves for different qualities of iron, close agreement between curves derived from them cannot be expected. The curves in Fig. 10 and Fig. 11, however, point very truly to the general way in which transformation ratio and primary current vary.

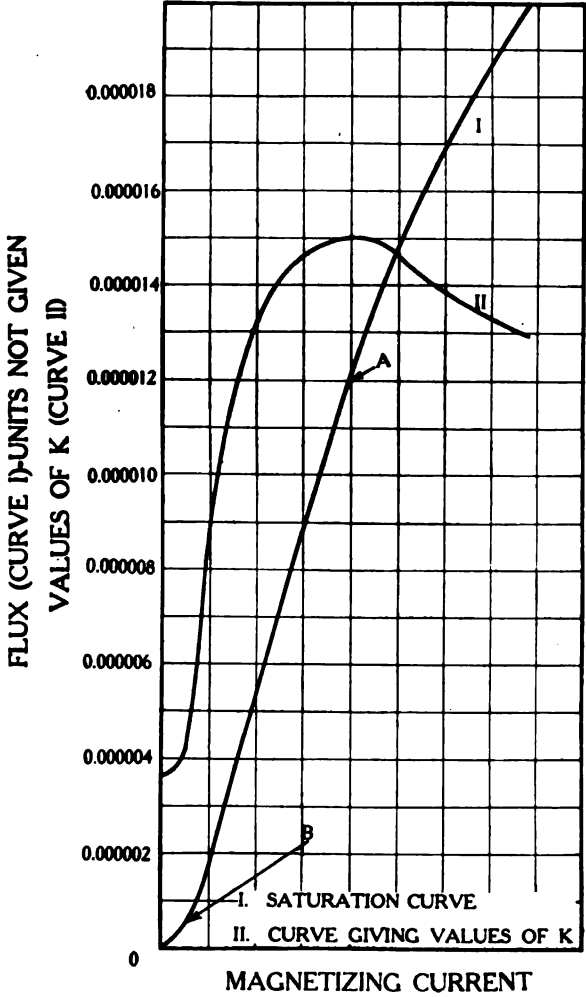


FIG. 9. SATURATION CURVE AND CURVE GIVING VALUES OF K

With values of F already determined for various values of primary current, it is an easy matter to substitute these in equation (25), and find the corresponding phase angles. Fig. 12 shows the variation of the phase angle β with the primary current. It is noted that above 60% full load primary current the variation in phase angle is small, but below 40% it increases quite rapidly.

Curves similar to those shown in Fig. 10, Fig. 11, and Fig. 12 may be determined for any other secondary load by making use of the fact that the ordinate of point A Fig. 9 is directly proportional to the secondary impedance. Knowing the new values of secondary resistance and reactance, and having established the new point A, the method of determining the new curves is exactly the same as that given above.

7. *Discussion of Curves Plotted from Formulas.*—The curves which have been plotted, showing the variations of transformation ratio and phase angle with various constants of the transformer are largely self-explanatory. Perhaps the most general observation that can be made from them is that the factor which least affects the transformation ratio is likely to greatly affect the phase angle, and *vice versa*. Thus from Curve I. Fig. 4 it is seen that for reasonable values the effect of secondary resistance upon the transformation ratio is practically negligible, whereas Fig. 6 shows that its effect upon the phase angle is very great. Again the effect of secondary reactance upon the ratio is very considerable as shown by Curve II. Fig. 4 whereas its effect upon the phase angle is quite small, as shown by Fig. 7. The curves in Fig. 5 show that the effect of changes in frequency becomes less as the secondary resistance is decreased. This then together with the fact that the phase angle increases almost in direct proportion to the secondary resistance points to the desirability of a low value of secondary resistance. On the other hand, the secondary reactance, neglecting its effect upon the point of operation on the saturation curve, is not a matter of such great consequence, for increasing it decreases but little the phase angle, and the effect of changes in its value upon the transformation ratio is practically constant for all reasonable values of reactance. The effect of changing either secondary resistance or reactance is to change the point of operation on the saturation curve and, as a consequence, to change the shapes of the curves in Fig. 10, Fig. 11, and Fig. 12. The desirability of using iron having as nearly constant permeability at low densities as possible is made evident by Fig. 10, Fig. 11, and Fig. 12. These figures also indicate that the reliable working range lies above 50 or 60 per cent full load current.

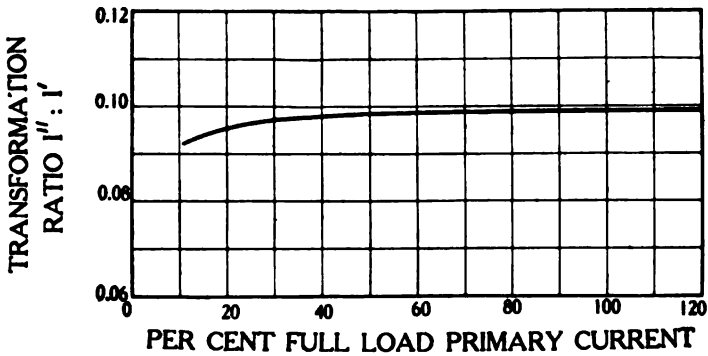


FIG. 10. VARIATION OF TRANSFORMATION RATIO WITH STRENGTH OF PRIMARY CURRENT

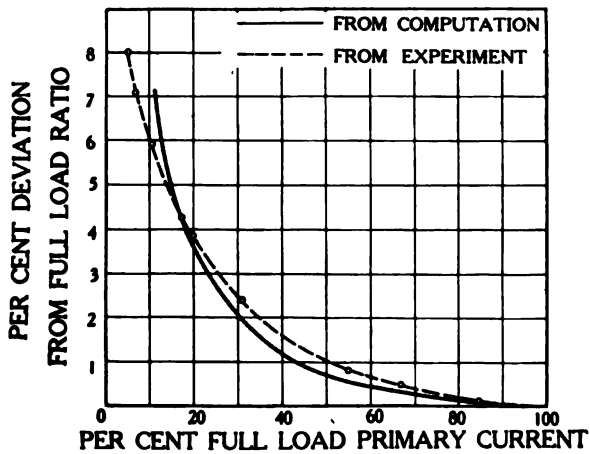


FIG. 11. DEVIATION FROM NORMAL TRANSFORMATION RATIO WITH STRENGTH OF PRIMARY CURRENT

The solution of equation (33) is

$$\begin{aligned}
 i'' &= -A \frac{X_m}{X_2} \epsilon^{-b\theta} \left\{ \int \epsilon^{b\theta} \left[\cos(\theta - s) + a \sin(\theta_1 - s) \epsilon^{-a\theta'} \right] d\theta + C' \right\} \\
 &= -A \frac{X_m}{X_2} \left\{ \frac{\sin(\theta - s + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} + \frac{a}{(b-a)} \sin(\theta_1 - s) \epsilon^{-a\theta'} + C' \epsilon^{-b\theta} \right\} \\
 &= -A \frac{X_m}{X_2} \left\{ \frac{\sin(\theta - s + \beta)}{1/\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} + \frac{a}{(b-a)} \sin(\theta_1 - s) \epsilon^{-a\theta'} + C' \epsilon^{-b\theta} \right\} \quad (34)
 \end{aligned}$$

Where $\beta = \arctan b$

When $\theta = \theta_1$, that is when $\theta' = 0$,

$$i' = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad i'' = 0$$

Therefore, solving equation (34) for C

$$C = - \left[\frac{\sin(\theta_1 - s + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} + \frac{a}{(b-a)} \sin(\theta_1 - s) \right] \dots (35)$$

$$= - \frac{b}{(b-a)} \sqrt{\frac{(1+a^2)}{(1+b^2)}} \sin(\theta_1 - s + \rho) \dots (36)$$

$$\text{Where } \rho = \arctan \frac{b-a}{1+ab} \dots (36')$$

Knowing the instantaneous values of i' and i'' and the ratio of the secondary to primary turns $\frac{N_2}{N_1}$, the instantaneous value of magnetizing current i is given by the following equation,

$$i = i' + \frac{N_2}{N_1} i'' \dots (37)$$

Substituting equation (34) and (30) in (37)

$$i = A \left\{ \sin(\theta - s) - \sin(\theta_1 - s) \epsilon^{-a\theta'} - \right.$$

$$\frac{X_M N_2}{X_2 N_1} \left[\frac{\sin (\theta - s + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} + \frac{a}{b - a} \sin (\theta_1 - s) \varepsilon^{-a\theta'} + C \varepsilon^{-b\theta'} \right] \} \quad (38)$$

Representing $\frac{X_M N_2}{X_2 N_1}$ by the constant K and replacing and combining the trigonometric functions into one, the equation becomes

$$i = A \left\{ \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2k - k^2}{b^2 + 1}\right)} \sin (\theta - s - u) - \right. \\ \left. \left(1 + \frac{ka}{b - a}\right) \sin (\theta_1 - s) \varepsilon^{-a\theta'} - k C \varepsilon^{-b\theta'} \right\} \dots\dots\dots (39)$$

Where $u = \arctan \frac{kb}{(b^2 + 1 - k)}$, which is the angle of lag of the stable magnetizing current behind the primary current.

Example 1. As an example of the application of this method the transformer for which data have already been given may be considered, with the additional data

$$A = 1$$

$$\theta_1 = 175^\circ$$

The following data, previously given, will be needed,

$$a = \frac{r_1}{x_1} = 0.1$$

$$b = \frac{r_2}{x_2} = 0.01$$

$$X_M = 10$$

$$X_2 = 100$$

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = 9.5$$

$$s = 85^\circ \text{ (calculated)}$$

Substituting these constants in equation (30)

$$i' = \sin (\theta - 85^\circ) - \epsilon^{-1\theta'} \dots\dots\dots (A')$$

ρ from equation (36') is

$$\rho = \arctan \frac{b-a}{1+ab} = \arctan (-.09) = -5^\circ$$

The value of C from equation (36) becomes

$$C = .111$$

$$\beta = \arctan b = 35 \text{ minutes}$$

Hence, from equation (34)

$$i'' = -0.1 [\sin (\theta - 84.4^\circ) - 1.11 \epsilon^{-1\theta'} + .111 \epsilon^{-.01\theta'}] \dots (B')$$

$$u = \arctan \frac{kb}{b^2 + 1 - k} = 10^\circ 45'$$

That is, the stable condition of the magnetizing current lags $10^\circ 45'$ behind the primary current.

i from equation (39) becomes

$$i = [.05 \sin (\theta - 95.75^\circ) + .055 \epsilon^{-1\theta} - .1055 \epsilon^{-.01\theta}] \dots (C')$$

In Fig. 13 equations (A'), (B'), and (C') are plotted with θ as abscissas and i' , i'' , and i as ordinates. The ordinates derived from equation (B') are multiplied by the transformation ratio $\frac{X_2}{X_M} = 10$ and turned 180° so as to be superimposed upon the primary current for better comparison. The curves thus plotted show clearly the error in secondary current due to the air core transformer with a 5% magnetizing current.

9. *Unsymmetrical Currents in Series Transformer with Air Core.*—As a second problem a series transformer traversed by an unsymmetrical primary current might be considered. If the current lies entirely above the zero line, the equation would be

$$i' = A [\sin \theta + 1 - C \epsilon^{-\theta'}] \dots\dots\dots (40)$$

Where $C = \sin \theta_1 + 1$

Differentiating (40) and substituting in equation (29)

$$\frac{di''}{d\theta} + bi'' = -A \frac{X_M}{X_2} (\cos \theta + C a \epsilon^{-\theta'}) \dots\dots (41)$$

And the solution of equation (41) is

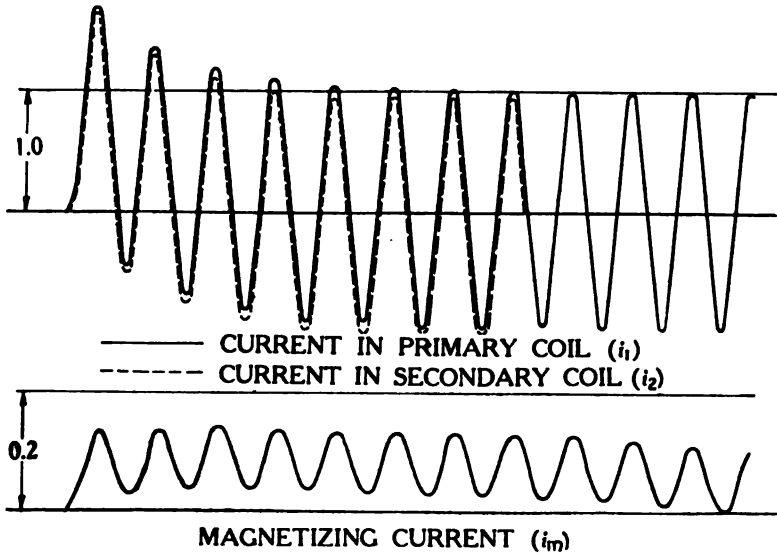


FIG. 13. CURRENT DIAGRAM FOR EXAMPLE 1

$$i'' = -A \frac{X_M}{X_2} \left[\frac{\sin(\theta + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} + \frac{aC}{(b - a)} \epsilon^{-a\theta'} + C' \epsilon^{-b\theta'} \right] \quad (42)$$

Where $\beta = \arctan b$, and since when $\theta = \theta_r$, $\theta' = 0$ and $i'' = 0$

$$C' = - \left[\frac{\sin(\theta_1 + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} + \frac{aC}{(b - a)} \right]$$

If the time constant $\frac{1}{a}$ of the primary circuit is exceedingly small, then $\epsilon^{-a\theta'}$ will practically be zero in a very short time; (a) will be large in comparison to (b) and equation (42) becomes, after an infinitesimal time.

$$i'' = -A \frac{X_M}{X_2} \left\{ \frac{\sin(\theta + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} - \left[\frac{\sin(\theta_1 + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} - \sin \theta_1 - 1 \right] \epsilon^{-b\theta'} \right\} \quad (43)$$

And equation (40) becomes

$$i' = A [\sin \theta + 1] \dots \dots \dots (44)$$

Substituting equations (44) and (43) in (37)

$$i = A \left[\sin \theta + 1 - \frac{k}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} \sin (\theta + \beta) + C e^{-b\theta'} \right] \quad (45)$$

Where

$$C = k \left[\frac{\sin (\theta_1 + \beta)}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} - \sin \theta_1 - 1 \right] \dots\dots\dots (46)$$

Equation (45) may be further reduced to the form

$$i = A \left[\sqrt{1 - \frac{(2k - k^2)}{(b^2 + 1)}} \sin (\theta - s') + 1 + C e^{-b\theta'} \right] \quad (47)$$

Where $s' = \arctan \frac{kb}{(b^2 + 1 - k)}$

Example 2. Assume that the same transformer is used as in Example 1, but that the constant (a) is very large and the primary wave of the form,

$$i' = \sin \theta + 1 \dots\dots\dots (A'')$$

Then from equation (43)

$$i'' = -.1 [\sin (\theta + 35') + e^{-.01\theta'}] \dots\dots\dots (B'')$$

And from (47)

$$i = .05 \sin (\theta - 10.75^\circ) - .95 e^{-.01\theta'} + 1 \dots\dots\dots (C'')$$

10. *Effect of Constants of Transformer on Instantaneous Current Values.*—The curves on Fig. 14, plotted from equations A'', B'', and C'' show clearly how the current in the secondary of the transformer gradually becomes symmetrical in reference to the zero line, while the magnetizing current creeps up to a line which is symmetrical in respect to the primary current.

The reactance of the secondary, X_2 , as has previously been indicated, contains two factors, X'_2 and x_2 , of which X'_2 represents that portion of the flux that interlinks with the primary coil, and x_2 represents that portion of the flux that does not interlink with the primary coil, and is known as leakage reactance. X'_2 and X_m hold a definite relation to each other, which ratio, is that of the secondary turns N_2 to the primary turns N_1 . The transformation ratio of the transformer for zero secondary impedance is that ratio of the mutual inductive reactance X_m to the total secondary self inductive reactance X_2 , which ratio can only be considered equal to the ratio of the respective turns in so far as x_2 can be neglected in comparison to X'_2 . The resistance in the secondary cir-

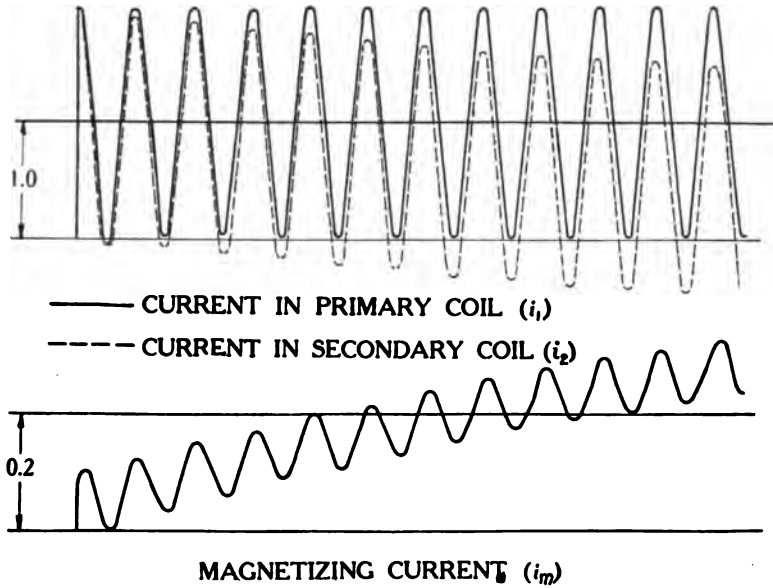


FIG. 14. CURRENT DIAGRAM FOR EXAMPLE 2

cuit has little effect on the transformation ratio, but does produce a displacement in phase in the stable condition, and introduces large errors in the transient term, since b is directly proportional to r_2 . The smaller the factor b , the more closely the secondary current follows the primary current and therefore, for observing transient currents, the secondary leakage reactance improves the accuracy; while resistance, though small, introduces large errors. The value of x_2 is limited only in so far as its effect upon the primary current can be neglected. As increase of x_2 does increase the magnetizing current, but this increase is in phase with the primary current and therefore no displacement results, and the transformation ratio is only diminished. Therefore, a transformer designed to be used for transient phenomena should have an exceedingly large secondary reactance and a very small secondary resistance.

Under stable conditions, equation (34) becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
 i'' &= -A \frac{X_M \sin(\theta - s + \beta)}{X_2 \sqrt{b^2 + 1}} \\
 &= -\frac{A X_M}{\sqrt{X_2^2 + r_2^2}} \sin(\theta - s + \beta) \dots \dots \dots (48)
 \end{aligned}$$

Since X'_2 is large in comparison to either r_2 or x_2 , it is evident from the above equation that an increase of r_2 has little effect on the transformation ratio, while an increase in x_2 has an appreciable effect. Also, since β is small ($\text{arc tan } \frac{r_2}{X'_2 + x_2}$) the angle of displacement β is directly proportional to r_2 , while increasing x_2 decreases the displacement. In other words, the magnetizing current required to force the secondary current through the resistance r_2 lags ninety degrees behind that portion of the primary current that is transferred to the secondary, while the magnetizing current required to force the secondary through the reactance x_2 is in phase with the said current.

11. *Series Transformer with Iron Core and Negligible Secondary Leakage Reactance.*—This gradual increase, or creeping of the magnetizing current of the series transformer with unsymmetrical currents, has a much greater and more disastrous effect in the case of an ordinary transformer with an iron core. In the case of the air core transformer the magnetizing current was a direct function of the primary current in all stable conditions; but this, as has already been shown, does not hold true in the case of the transformer with an iron core. The mutual inductive reactance X_M and the corresponding self-inductive reactance X'_2 depend, in exactly the same way, upon the reluctance of the core circuit, and consequently their ratio is a constant, with a value the same as that of the ratio of the number of primary and secondary turns. The leakage reactance x_2 is more or less independent of the permeability of the core, and consequently the transformation ratio $\frac{X_M}{X'_2 + x_2}$ is not a constant but depends upon the magnitude of the magnetizing current. Furthermore as X'_2 decreases it necessarily approaches the value of r_2 and the error due to the increasing factor b becomes very large.

It is unfortunate that the saturation curve of the iron cannot be represented by a mathematical equation and therefore the only solution of the problem is the tedious step by step method. Although this method obviously is not absolutely correct, it does give a close approximation. Consider first the problem where the secondary leakage reactance x_2 is negligible. From the terminal conditions and constants of the circuit, the primary current at any instant may be determined, as by equation (30). From equation (37),

$$i' - \frac{N_2}{N_1} i'' = i \dots\dots\dots (49)$$

where the quantities are expressed arithmetically instead of algebraically.

The nature of what follows makes it more convenient to express the relation in this manner. Since the secondary leakage reactance is negligible, the change of flux need give only the e.m.f. necessary to force the secondary current through the resistance r_2 , or

$$D \frac{d\phi}{d\theta} = i'' r_2 \dots \dots \dots (50)$$

where D is a proportionality constant. Equation (50) may be written

$$i = \frac{D}{r_2} \frac{d\phi}{d\theta} \dots \dots \dots (51)$$

Substituting (51) in (49)

$$i' - \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{D}{r_2} \frac{d\phi}{d\theta} = i \dots \dots \dots (52)$$

Changing from differential to difference, that is, replacing as approximation d by Δ gives

$$i' - \frac{N}{N_1} \frac{D}{r_2} \frac{\Delta\phi}{\Delta\theta} = i \dots \dots \dots (53)$$

Taking increments of 10° for $\Delta\theta$ gives

$$i' - \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{D}{r_2} 5.73 \Delta\phi = i$$

Whence

$$\Delta\phi = \frac{N_1}{N_2} \frac{r_2}{D} .175 [i' - i] \dots \dots \dots (54)$$

If the remanent magnetism in the core of the transformer at the time the circuit is made be denoted by ϕ_0 , the flux ϕ at any instant is given by the expression,

$$\phi = \phi_0 + \sum \Delta\phi \dots \dots \dots (55)$$

Substituting (54) in (55),

$$\phi = \phi_0 + \sum \frac{N_1}{N_2} \frac{r_2}{D} .175 [i' - i] \dots \dots \dots (56)$$

For convenience let r_2 have such a value that $.175 \frac{r_2}{D}$ becomes equal to unity. Then (56) becomes

$$\phi = \phi_0 + \sum \frac{N_1}{N_2} [i' - i] \dots \dots \dots (57)$$

As indicated above, the primary current may be determined from the conditions of the main circuit. Assuming a value for ϕ_0 , we may take as a first approximation

$$\phi' = \phi_0 + \sum \frac{N_1}{N_2} i \dots \dots \dots (58)$$

From the saturation curve a value of i corresponding to ϕ' is obtained, and substituted in equation (57). From (57) then a second approximate value of ϕ is obtained, which from the saturation curve gives a very close second approximate value of i . The following example may illustrate more fully the method of procedure.

Example 3. Assume the ratio of secondary to primary turns to be 10; the per cent of primary magnetizing current to be 1.2%; the primary current as given by equation (A'); a residual magnetism in the core of .5 units; and the saturation curve given in Fig. 15 to be that of the primary coil. The tabulation shown in Table 3 is a convenient form. Table 2 is a convenient tabulation for determining values of i' .

Column 2 of Table 3 is obtained from Table 2. The value of $\Delta \phi'$ in column 3 is equal to $\frac{N_1}{N_2}$ times the primary current i' , and ϕ in column 4 is the sum of $\Delta \phi'$ in column 3 and the value of ϕ in column 8 of the preceding line. (i) in column 5 is found from the saturation curve for the value of flux corresponding to 4. From ($i' - i$) of column 6 the values of $\Delta \phi$ in column 7 are obtained and added to 8 of the preceding line. This gives the value of flux from which the final value of magnetizing current i is determined. From column 10, i'' is obtained. In Fig. 16 are plotted curves for the above case similar to those in Fig. 12. The much more disastrous effect of the magnetizing current in a transformer with an iron core is readily seen from a comparison of these two sets of curves.

12. *Series Transformer with Iron Core and Appreciable Secondary Leakage Reactance.*—If the reactance of the secondary must be considered the change of flux must give an e.m.f. sufficient to overcome the reactance drop as well as the resistance drop of the secondary, or

$$D \frac{d\phi}{d\theta} = r_2 i'' + x_2 \frac{di''}{d\theta} \dots \dots \dots (59)$$

Example 4. Take the data of Example 3, but consider secondary leakage reactance. Changing from differentials to differences, and taking increments of $\theta = 10^\circ$, we obtain

$$5.73 D \Delta \phi = r_2 i'' + x_2 5.73 \Delta i'' \dots \dots \dots (60)$$

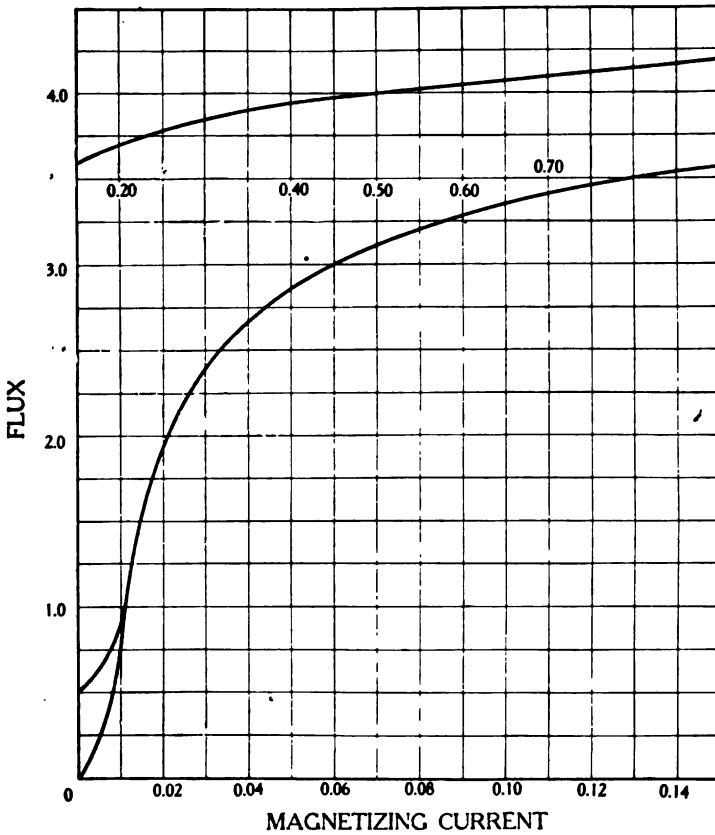


FIG. 15. SATURATION CURVE FOR EXAMPLE 3

And
$$i'' = \frac{5.73}{r_2} [D \triangle \phi - x_2 \triangle i''] \dots \dots \dots (61)$$

Substituting (61) in (49)

$$i' - \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{5.73}{r_2} [D \triangle \phi - x_2 \triangle i''] = i$$

Which reduces to

$$\triangle \phi = \frac{.175 r_2}{D} \frac{N_1}{N_2} [i' - i] + \frac{x_2}{D} \triangle i'' \dots \dots \dots (62)$$

Again, let r_2 have such a value that $.175 \frac{r_2}{D}$ becomes equal to unity. Then $D = .175 r_2$, and equation (62) becomes

$$\Delta \phi = \frac{N_1}{N_2} [i' - i] + 5.73 \frac{x_2}{r_2} \Delta i'' \dots\dots\dots (63)$$

Taking the secondary reactance equal to the secondary resistance, equation (63) becomes

$$\Delta \phi = \frac{N_1}{N_2} [i' - i] + 5.73 \Delta i'' \dots\dots\dots (64)$$

But from equation (49) $\Delta i'' = \frac{N_1}{N_2} [\Delta i' - \Delta i] \dots\dots\dots (65)$

Substituting (65) in (64) it becomes

$$\Delta \phi = \frac{N_1}{N_2} \{ [i' - i] + 5.73 [\Delta i' - \Delta i] \} \dots\dots (66)$$

Now substituting equation (66) in equation (55), an expression for the flux is obtained

$$\phi = \phi_0 + \sum \frac{N_1}{N_2} \{ [i' - i] + 5.73 [\Delta i' - \Delta i] \}$$

$$\phi = \phi_0 + \sum \frac{N_1}{N_2} \{ (i + 5.73 \Delta i') - (i + 5.73 \Delta i) \} \dots (67)$$

As a first approximation, the parenthesis containing i may be omitted, and equation (67) becomes

$$\phi = \phi_0 + \sum \frac{N_1}{N_2} (i' + 5.73 \Delta i') \dots\dots\dots (68)$$

With this value of ϕ' an approximate value i is obtained from the saturation curve. By this value of i the parenthesis of equation (67) is then filled in, and a second approximate value of ϕ obtained, whence by means of the saturation curve, a second very close approximate value of i is obtained.

Table 4 is a convenient form for tabulation. Column 7 of Table 4 gives ϕ' as obtained by the first approximation, and column 8 gives the corresponding magnetizing current. Column 12 gives $\Delta \phi$ as obtained when using i , and column 13 gives the second approximation of ϕ . Column 14 gives the corresponding value of magnetizing current, and from 15 the value of secondary current may be obtained. ϕ' in column 7 is obtained by adding $\Delta \phi'$ of column 6 to ϕ of the previous line in column 13. In Fig. 17 are plotted curves from the above case similar to those shown in Fig. 13 and in Fig. 14.

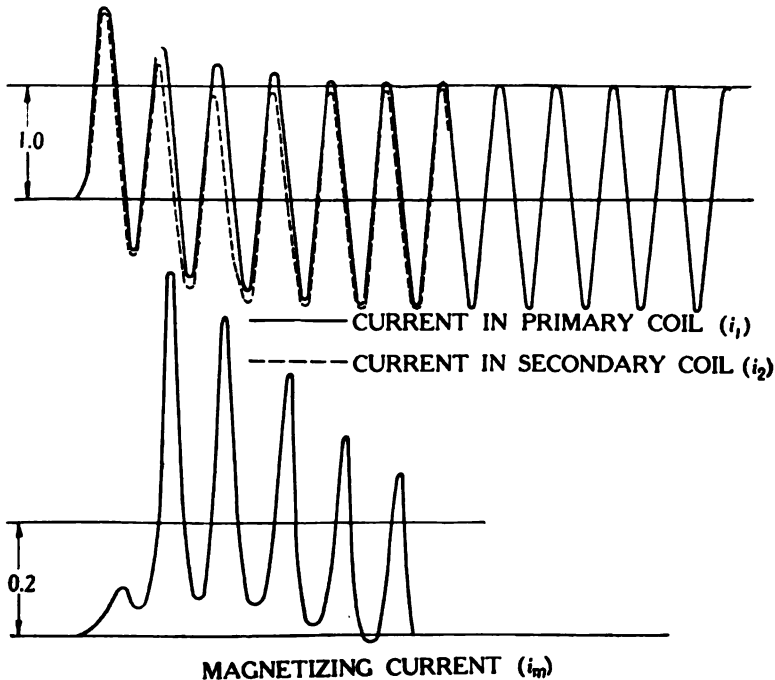


FIG. 16. CURRENT DIAGRAM FOR EXAMPLE 3

Fig. 16 and Fig. 17 (corresponding to examples 3 and 4), show clearly the errors introduced by the use of the series transformer with an iron core in recording transient phenomena. The “steading” effect of secondary reactance is made evident by a comparison of the two curves.

The oscillograph record, shown in Fig. 18, is that of the current through the secondary of the series transformer together with the current through the primary, which is the starting current of an inductive circuit with an electrical time constant $(\frac{x}{r})$. of 10. These experimental curves are very similar to those as calculated from Examples 3 and 4 although the constants are somewhat different.

13. *Comparison of Methods of Computation for Series Transformers.*—The agreement between the two methods of solution, namely, the “complex quantity method” and the “differential equation method” may be pointed out briefly as follows. If transient terms be dropped, and the maximum value of equation (34) be divided by the maximum value of

equation (30) this will be the same as the quotient of the effective values, or the transformation ratio will be

$$\frac{i'''}{i'} = - \frac{X_m}{X_2 \sqrt{b^2 + 1}} = - \frac{X_m}{\sqrt{r_2^2 + X_2^2}} \dots \dots (69)$$

It will be remembered that secondary load resistance and reactance were taken equal to zero in the second method. If therefore, r and x in equation (24) be replaced by zero, the agreement with equation (69) is evident. Again a comparison of equations (34) and (30) shows that the angle of phase difference between the two currents i''' and i' under stable conditions is β and

$$\beta = \arctan b = \arctan \frac{r_2}{X_2}$$

If r and x in equation (25') be replaced by zero, the agreement in phase angle as obtained by the two methods is evident.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions that may be drawn from the preceding discussion in regard to the behavior of current transformers, are of a qualitative rather than a quantitative nature. The examples chosen, however, have been such as to give a fair and reasonable representation of magnitude, but the main purpose has been to derive and explain the general characteristics of the current transformer, and to point out some of its limitations.

To enumerate again in detail all the results of this investigation is thought unnecessary. An examination of the figures will show most of them. In conclusion a few of the most general and important results are given:

1. The transformation ratio and phase angle of a series transformer having a core of constant permeability (as air) are constant under given conditions for all values of primary current; but this is not so with a transformer having an iron core. With an iron-cored series transformer the form of variation depends upon the shape of the saturation curve, and upon the range over which the transformer operates. The range over which the *permeability* remains most nearly constant is the range over which the *ratio* remains most nearly constant. In a transformer of constant core reluctance the so-called magnetizing current is proportional to the primary current, and its phase position is constant.

2. The introduction of resistance in the secondary circuit of a series transformer has the effect of increasing the phase angle, and this increase in phase angle is practically proportional to the secondary resistance for

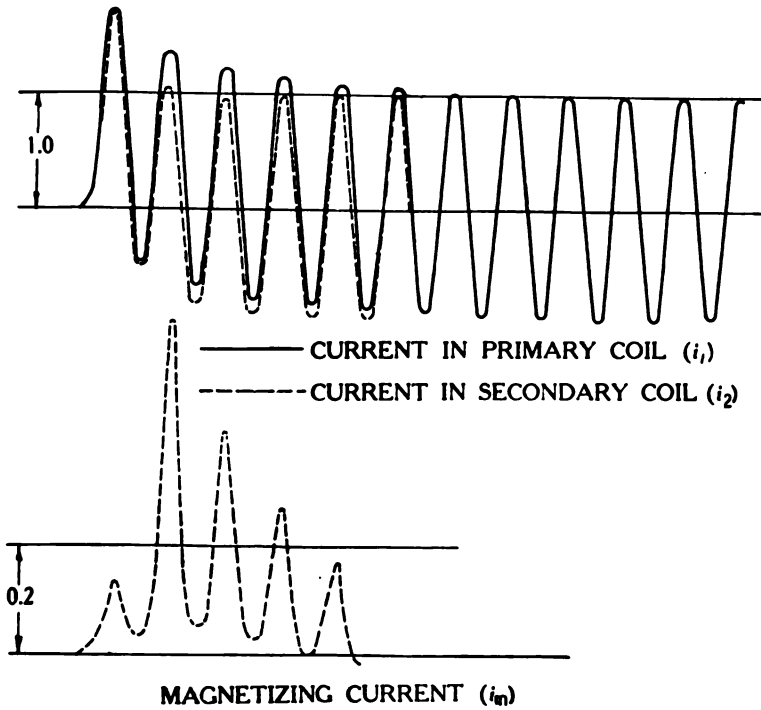


FIG. 17. CURRENT DIAGRAM FOR EXAMPLE 3—
SECONDARY REACTANCE CONSIDERED.

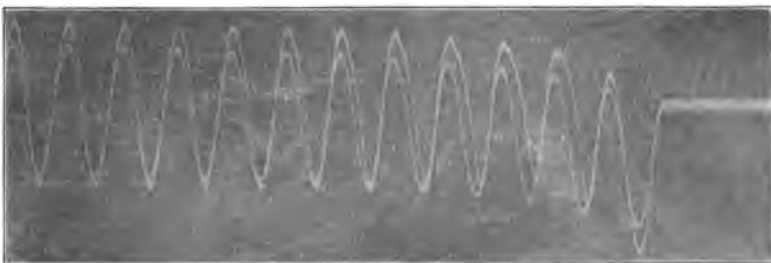


FIG. 18. OSCILLOGRAPH RECORD OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY
CURRENTS IN SERIES TRANSFORMER

reasonable values. Increasing the secondary resistance decreases but slightly the transformation ratio. Hence it may be said that in general the introduction of secondary resistance is very objectionable when the transformer supplies current for a wattmeter, but is not seriously objectionable when the transformer supplies current for an ammeter.

3. The effect of secondary reactance, and the equivalent effect of magnetic leakage is to reduce the phase angle slightly, and the transformation ratio very considerably.

4. The phase angle increases with decreased permeability, and consequently in a transformer with an iron core the phase angle increases as the line current decreases.

5. The effect of changes in frequency within a range of 10 cycles is not generally serious. It should be pointed out, however, that in addition to the effects of frequency shown in the curves, in a transformer with an iron core, decreasing the frequency raises the point of operation on the saturation curve, and hence increases the core loss and alters the form of variation of transformation ratio and phase angle with primary current.

6. The desirability of a high number of turns was pointed out. With a reasonably high number of turns and a not excessive value of secondary resistance the effect of frequency over a considerable range is negligible.

7. The effect of core loss is to decrease the secondary current, this effect being lessened by inductive secondary load. Increased core loss decreases the phase angles, and this effect is increased by inductive secondary load.

8. In an iron-core series transformer the value of flux density should be low (say $B = 2,000$ at full load). This means a *low* value of magnetizing current. To this end excessive secondary impedance should be avoided, as increased impedance requires an increase in flux in practically direct proportion to the impedance. Since the effect of magnetic leakage is equivalent to the effect of secondary reactance, the transformer should be designed with a view to minimum magnetic leakage. This requires a well closed iron circuit.

9. For recording instantaneous values of current in transient or unsymmetrical systems, the commercial series transformer with an iron core is quite inadequate, and cannot be relied upon.

10. If necessity demands the use of a series transformer in recording transient or unsymmetrical currents, an air-core transformer, designed to have a very small secondary resistance and a large secondary reactance will be found to give results nearer to those desired than can be obtained with an iron core transformer.

TABLE I.
NOMINAL AND ACTUAL CURRENT RATIOS

	100	70	50	30	20	10
<i>Secondary Current—per cent of Full Load</i>						
F	0.00001425	0.00001375	0.00001288	0.00001100	0.00000934	0.00000650
$F N_1^3 \omega$	1.052	1.017	0.951	0.812	0.690	0.480
$A = \frac{N_2}{N_1} F N_1^3 \omega$	10.00	9.67	9.04	7.71	6.55	4.56
$F N_2^3 \omega$	95.0	91.75	86.0	73.4	62.3	43.3
$F N_2^2 \omega + x_2 + x$	101.0	97.75	92.0	79.4	68.3	49.3
$(F N_2^2 \omega + x_2 + x)^2$	10200	9550	8460	6300	4660	2430
$(r_2 + r)^2$	4	4	4	4	4	4
$(F N_2^2 \omega + x_2 + x)^2 + (r_2 + r)^2$	10204	9554	8464	6304	4664	2434
$B = \sqrt{(F N_2^2 \omega + x_2 + x)^2 + (r_2 + r)^2}$	101.0	97.8	92.0	79.4	68.3	49.3
$\frac{I''}{I'} = -\frac{A}{B}$	0.0990	0.0988	0.0983	0.0971	0.0958	0.0925
<i>Primary Current—per cent of Full Load</i>	100	70.2	50.4	30.6	20.4	10.7
<i>Deviation of $\frac{I''}{I'}$ from Full Load Value</i>	0	0.0002	0.0007	0.0019	0.0031	0.0065
<i>Error in Nominal Value of $\frac{I''}{I'}$ — per cent</i>	0	0.202	0.707	1.920	3.230	6.570

TABLE 2
DETERMINATION OF VALUES OF i'

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
θ' degrees	θ' radians	(θ_1-s) degrees	$a \theta'$	$e^{-a\theta'}$	$\sin(\theta_1-s) e^{-a\theta'}$	θ	$(\theta-s)$	$\sin(\theta-s)$	i'
0	.0	90	0	1	1.000	175	90	1.000	0
10	.175	"	.0175	.983	.983	185	100	.985	-.002
20	.349	"	.0349	.965	.965	195	110	.940	-.025
30	.524	"	.0524	.950	.950	205	120	.866	-.084
40	.699	"	.0699	.935	.935	215	130	.766	-.169
50	.873	"	.0873	.92	.92	225	140	.643	-.277
60	1.048	"	.1048	.90	.90	235	150	.500	-.400
70	1.223	"	.1223	.885	.885	245	160	.342	-.543
80	1.398	"	.1398	.87	.87	255	170	.174	-.696
90	1.572	"	.1572	.855	.855	265	180	0	-.855
100	1.747	"	.1747	.84	.84	275	190	-.174	-1.014
110	1.922	"	.1922	.825	.825	285	200	-.342	-1.167
120	2.095	"	.2095	.81	.81	295	210	-.500	-1.310
130	2.27	"	.227	.795	.795	305	220	-.643	-1.438
140	2.44	"	.244	.785	.785	315	230	-.766	-1.551
150	2.62	"	.262	.77	.77	325	240	-.866	-1.636
160	2.79	"	.279	.76	.76	335	250	-.940	-1.700
170	2.97	"	.297	.745	.745	345	260	-.985	-1.730
180	3.14	"	.314	.73	.73	355	270	-1.000	-1.730
190	3.32	"	.332	.715	.715	365	280	-.985	-1.700
200	3.49	"	.349	.705	.705	375	290	-.940	-1.645
210	3.67	"	.367	.69	.69	385	300	-.866	-1.556
220	3.84	"	.384	.68	.68	395	310	-.766	-1.446
230	4.02	"	.402	.67	.67	405	320	-.643	-1.313
240	4.19	"	.419	.66	.66	415	330	-.500	-1.160
250	4.37	"	.437	.65	.65	425	340	-.342	-.992
260	4.54	"	.454	.635	.635	435	350	-.174	-.809
270	4.72	"	.472	.625	.625	445	360	0	-.625
280	4.89	"	.489	.615	.615	455	370	.174	-.441
290	5.07	"	.507	.605	.605	465	380	.342	-.263
300	5.24	"	.524	.59	.59	475	390	.500	-.090
310	5.42	"	.542	.58	.58	485	400	.643	.063
320	5.59	"	.559	.57	.57	495	410	.766	.196
330	5.76	"	.576	.56	.56	505	420	.866	.306
340	5.94	"	.594	.55	.55	515	430	.940	.390
350	6.11	"	.611	.54	.54	525	440	.985	.445
360	6.28	"	.628	.535	.535	535	450	1.000	.465

TABLE 3
SOLUTION OF EXAMPLE 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
θ'	i'	$\Delta \phi' = \frac{N_1 i'}{N_2}$	ϕ'	i	$(i' - i)$	$\Delta \phi = \frac{N_1 (i' - i)}{N_2}$	ϕ	i	$(i' - i) = \frac{N_2}{N_1} i''$
0	0	0	.500	0	0	0	.500	0	0
10	0	0	.500	0	0	0	.500	0	0
20	.025	.002	.502	0	.025	.002	.502	0	.025
30	.084	.008	.510	.001	.083	.008	.510	.001	.083
40	.169	.017	.527	.002	.167	.017	.527	.002	.167
50	.277	.028	.555	.003	.274	.027	.554	.003	.274
60	.400	.040	.595	.004	.396	.040	.594	.004	.396
70	.543	.054	.649	.006	.537	.054	.648	.006	.537
80	.696	.070	.718	.007	.689	.069	.717	.007	.689
90	.855	.085	.803	.008	.847	.085	.802	.008	.847
100	1.014	.101	.903	.010	1.004	.100	.902	.010	1.004
110	1.167	.117	1.019	.011	1.156	.116	1.018	.011	1.156
120	1.310	.131	1.149	.012	1.298	.130	1.148	.012	1.298
130	1.438	.144	1.291	.013	1.425	.143	1.290	.013	1.425
140	1.551	.155	1.445	.014	1.537	.154	1.444	.014	1.537
150	1.636	.164	1.607	.016	1.620	.162	1.606	.016	1.620
160	1.700	.170	1.776	.018	1.682	.168	1.774	.018	1.682
170	1.730	.173	1.947	.020	1.710	.171	1.945	.020	1.710
180	1.730	.173	2.118	.023	1.707	.171	2.116	.023	1.707
190	1.700	.170	2.286	.026	1.674	.167	2.283	.026	1.674
200	1.645	.164	2.448	.031	1.614	.161	2.444	.031	1.614
210	1.556	.156	2.600	.036	1.520	.152	2.596	.036	1.520
220	1.446	.145	2.741	.043	1.403	.140	2.737	.043	1.403
230	1.313	.131	2.868	.050	1.263	.126	2.863	.050	1.263
240	1.160	.116	2.979	.059	1.101	.110	2.973	.058	1.102
250	.992	.099	3.072	.067	.925	.093	3.066	.066	.926
260	.809	.081	3.147	.074	.735	.073	3.139	.073	.736
270	.625	.062	3.202	.080	.545	.055	3.194	.079	.546
280	.441	.044	3.238	.085	.356	.036	3.229	.084	.357
290	.263	.026	3.256	.086	.177	.018	3.247	.085	.178
300	.090	.009	3.256	.086	.004	.000	3.247	.085	.005
310	-.063	-.006	3.241	.084	-.147	-.015	3.233	.083	-.146
320	-.196	-.020	3.213	.081	-.277	-.028	3.205	.080	-.276
330	-.306	-.031	3.174	.077	-.383	-.038	3.167	.076	-.382
340	-.390	-.039	3.128	.072	-.462	-.046	3.120	.071	-.461
350	-.445	-.044	3.076	.067	-.512	-.051	3.069	.066	-.511
360	-.465	-.046	3.023	.062	-.527	-.053	3.017	.061	-.526

TABLE 4
SOLUTION OF EXAMPLE 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
θ'	i'	$\Delta i'$	$5.73 \Delta i'$	$[i' + 5.73 \Delta i']$	$\Delta \phi'$	ϕ'	i	Δi	$5.73 \Delta i$	$[i + 5.73 \Delta i]$	$\Delta \phi$	ϕ	i	$(i' - i) = \frac{N_2}{N_1} i''$
0	0	0	0	0	0	.500	0	0	0	0	0	.500	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	.500	0	0	0	0	0	.500	0	0
20	.025	.025	.143	.168	.017	.517	.001	.001	.006	.007	.016	.516	.001	.024
30	.084	.059	.338	.422	.042	.558	.003	.002	.011	.014	.041	.557	.003	.081
40	.169	.085	.487	.656	.066	.622	.005	.002	.011	.016	.064	.621	.005	.164
50	.277	.108	.619	.896	.090	.710	.007	.002	.011	.018	.088	.709	.007	.270
60	.400	.123	.705	1.105	.110	.819	.009	.002	.011	.020	.108	.817	.009	.391
70	.543	.143	.820	1.363	.136	.953	.010	.001	.006	.016	.135	.952	.010	.533
80	.696	.153	.877	1.573	.157	1.109	.012	.002	.011	.023	.155	1.107	.012	.684
90	.855	.161	.923	1.778	.178	1.285	.013	.001	.006	.019	.176	1.283	.013	.842
100	1.014	.159	.911	1.925	.192	1.475	.015	.002	.011	.026	.190	1.473	.015	.999
110	1.167	.153	.877	2.044	.204	1.677	.017	.002	.011	.028	.202	1.674	.017	1.150
120	1.310	.143	.820	2.130	.213	1.887	.019	.002	.011	.030	.210	1.884	.019	1.291
130	1.438	.128	.733	2.171	.217	2.101	.022	.003	.017	.039	.213	2.097	.022	1.416
140	1.551	.113	.647	2.198	.220	2.317	.027	.005	.029	.056	.214	2.312	.027	1.524
150	1.636	.085	.487	2.123	.212	2.524	.033	.006	.034	.067	.206	2.517	.033	1.603
160	1.700	.064	.366	2.066	.207	2.724	.042	.009	.052	.094	.197	2.714	.042	1.658
170	1.730	.030	.172	1.902	.190	2.905	.053	.011	.063	.116	.179	2.893	.052	1.678
180	1.730	0	0	1.730	.173	3.066	.066	.013	.074	.140	.159	3.052	.065	1.665
190	1.700	-.030	-.172	1.528	.153	3.205	.080	.014	.080	.160	.137	3.189	.078	1.622
200	1.645	-.055	-.315	1.330	.133	3.322	.095	.015	.086	.181	.115	3.304	.093	1.552

TABLE 4.—Continued
SOLUTION OF EXAMPLE 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
θ'	i'	$\Delta i'$	$5.73\Delta i'$	$[i' + 5.73\Delta i']$	$\Delta \phi'$	ϕ'	i	Δi	$5.73\Delta i$	$i + 5.73\Delta i$	$\Delta \phi$	ϕ	i	$(i' - i) = \frac{N_2}{N_1} i'$
210	1.556	— .089	— .510	1.046	.105	3.408	.110	.015	.086	.196	.085	3.389	.106	1.450
220	1.446	— .110	— .630	.816	.082	3.470	.122	.012	.069	.191	.062	3.451	.118	1.328
230	1.313	— .133	— .762	.551	.055	3.506	.129	.007	.040	.169	.038	3.489	.126	1.187
240	1.160	— .153	— .877	.283	.028	3.518	.132	.003	.017	.149	.013	3.503	.129	1.031
250	.992	— .168	— .963	.029	.003	3.506	.129	— .003	— .017	.112	— .008	3.495	.127	.865
260	.809	— .183	— 1.048	— .239	— .024	3.471	.121	— .008	— .046	.075	— .031	3.463	.120	.689
270	.626	— .184	— 1.064	— .429	— .043	3.420	.112	— .009	— .052	.060	— .049	3.414	.111	.514
280	.441	— .184	— 1.054	— .613	— .061	3.353	.101	— .011	— .083	.038	— .065	3.349	.100	.341
290	.263	— .178	— 1.020	— .757	— .076	3.273	.089	— .012	— .089	.020	— .078	3.271	.088	.175
300	.090	— .173	— .992	— .902	— .090	3.181	.077	— .012	— .069	.008	— .091	3.180	.077	.013
310	— .063	— .163	— .877	— .940	— .094	3.086	.068	— .009	— .052	.016	— .096	3.085	.068	— .131
320	— .196	— .133	— .762	— .958	— .096	2.989	.060	— .008	— .046	.014	— .097	2.988	.060	— .256
330	— .306	— .110	— .630	— .936	— .094	2.894	.052	— .008	— .046	.006	— .094	2.893	.052	— .358
340	— .390	— .084	— .481	— .871	— .087	2.806	.047	— .005	— .029	.018	— .089	2.805	.047	— .437
350	— .445	— .055	— .315	— .760	— .076	2.729	.042	— .005	— .029	.013	— .077	2.727	.042	— .487
360	— .465	— .020	— .114	— .579	— .058	2.669	.039	— .003	— .017	.022	— .060	2.667	.039	— .504

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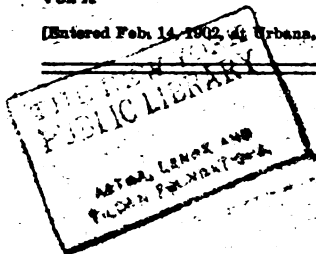
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS BULLETIN

Vol. X

NOVEMBER 4, 1912

No. 10

[Entered Feb. 14, 1902, at Urbana, Ill., as second-class matter under Act of Congress of July 16, 1894]



BULLETIN NO. 62

THE ELECTRON THEORY OF MAGNETISM

BY

ELMER H. WILLIAMS



UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

URBANA, ILLINOIS
PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATION

BULLETIN No. 62

NOVEMBER, 1912

THE ELECTRON THEORY OF MAGNETISM

By ELMER H. WILLIAMS, ASSOCIATE IN PHYSICS

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ELECTRON THEORY OF MAGNETISM

I. ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF THE ELECTRON THEORY OF MAGNETISM

1. *Introduction.*— During the last decade the development of the subject of magnetism has made rapid strides. Not only have the older theories and methods been extended by improved facilities, but new theories have been advanced which are intended to correlate the great mass of data and facts, and thus enable our present knowledge to be extended along new lines. Among the new theories which have been advanced by various authors, the *electron theory of magnetism* is one of the most important and interesting. This theory seems to account for magnetic phenomena in a very direct way. We have only to assume that the molecular currents of Ampère, which form the elementary magnets, are revolving electrons in order to express Ampère's theory of magnetism in terms of the electron theory. However, a closer study of their orbits, due to Voigt and J. J. Thomson, showed that these currents cannot account sufficiently for the phenomena of diamagnetic and paramagnetic bodies. It was only on the basis of the researches of Curie that Langevin was able to give a more satisfactory theory of diamagnetism and paramagnetism.

The theory, worked out by Langevin for paramagnetic gases only, was later extended by Weiss to ferromagnetic substances. Weiss introduced a new notion into the theory of magnetism, viz., that of an intrinsic or molecular magnetic field by means of which he could account in a very beautiful way for the magnetic properties of the crystal pyrrhotite and many of the magnetic properties of iron, nickel, and cobalt. He has also contributed most essentially to our experimental knowledge of the ferromagnetic phenomena.

One of the co-workers of Weiss in the fundamental investigations on pyrrhotite was J. Kunz, who also contributed to the theory of magnetism by determining the elementary magnetic moment and the charge of the electron from purely magnetic phenomena. In his lectures on the electron theory given at the University of Illinois, Kunz gave an account of the present theory of magnetism and of the experimental and theoretical work of Weiss. The author of this bulletin has used these lectures as a basis, drawing in addition, from the works of the various authors who have made further experimental advances.

Weiss recently advanced a new theory in which the magnetism of a substance appears to be made up of magnetons just as a negative electrical charge is an aggregation of electrons. This theory, if confirmed by further experimental evidence, represents a new fundamental step in the development of our knowledge of the material universe. The experimental evidence, however, seems hardly strong enough to warrant a detailed discussion of it in this bulletin.

The present theory of magnetism as developed by Langevin and Weiss is open to certain objections and fails to explain a considerable number of magnetic phenomena. It gives for instance no connection

between the elastic and magnetic phenomena of ferromagnetic substances. It is possible that even the foundation of the present theory will undergo changes, but the experimental facts which have been considered in developing the present form of the theory will still be of value. It seems advisable, therefore, in order to give to this bulletin a more permanent value, to lay considerable stress on the experimental methods applied by Weiss and his followers and to give also the results obtained since the time when the classical book on magnetism was written by Ewing.

The first part of the present bulletin contains, therefore, the essential features of the electron theory of magnetism, the second and the third parts give an account of the properties of ferromagnetic crystals, while the fourth part gives further experimental evidence in favor of the electron theory of magnetism together with an account of some of the phenomena for which the theory in its present form fails to give a satisfactory explanation.

2. *Kinds of Magnetism.*—Bodies are divided, from the point of view of their magnetic properties, into three distinct groups: ferromagnetic, paramagnetic, and diamagnetic.

Under ferromagnetic substances are classed those substances of which the intensity of magnetization at saturation is of the same order of magnitude as that of iron. They are iron, nickel, cobalt, magnetite, pyrrhotite, and the Heusler alloys (which consist of copper, manganese and aluminum).

Paramagnetic substances are those which, while they become magnetized in the direction of the field, do so very feebly. Among paramagnetic bodies are found oxygen, nitrogen dioxide, palladium, platinum, manganese, and the salts of various metals.

Diamagnetic bodies, which include the greater number of all simple and compound bodies, have properties very different from those of either ferromagnetic or paramagnetic bodies. When placed in a magnetic field, they become slightly magnetized in a direction opposite to the direction of the field.

Some bodies, such as iron, when heated, show a gradual transition from the ferromagnetic to the paramagnetic state or vice versa, but as yet no body, with the exception of tin, has been found which, by change of physical conditions, will pass from the diamagnetic to the paramagnetic state.

Within the last decade a large amount of work has been done on the ferromagnetic substances, magnetite, hematite, and pyrrhotite, which are found in nature in crystals of such size and shape as will permit of a study of their magnetic properties. However, it is not possible to obtain comprehensive results with magnetic crystals merely by adapting to them the methods that have been applied with success to isotropic substances.

In the case of isotropic substances, the intensity of magnetization has always the same direction as the field, and, as in all directions the behavior is the same, it is sufficient to apply to the substance a magnetic field of any direction and to determine the intensity of magnetization

corresponding to each of its values. It is true that it is necessary to take into account the different secondary phenomena, hysteresis, retentivity, etc., which influence considerably the character of the principal phenomena.

For allotropic substances, it is necessary to consider, besides the magnitude of the field and of the intensity of magnetization, their directions, which, in general, are different for these two quantities. In place of a function of one variable there will be a system of three functions of three variables if one represents the field and the magnetization by their components. As the secondary phenomena are as complicated as in isotropic substances, it is easy to see that the complete investigation of the magnetic properties of a crystal constitutes a very difficult problem.

3. *General Properties of Electrons.*—The electron theory of magnetism supposes that the atom is made up of positive and negative electricity, the latter always occurring as exceedingly small particles called electrons, and that these electrons, whenever they occur, are always of the same size and always carry the same quantity of electricity. It is this peculiar way in which the negative electricity occurs both in the atom and when free from matter that gives to the theory its name. An electron is then, an "atom" of electricity, or the smallest amount of electricity which can be isolated. These electrons are given out by all bodies at a sufficiently high temperature accompanying the phenomena of radiation. These electrical particles leave the metals and other substances under the action of visible and invisible light, Roentgen rays, radium rays, etc. They appear in most of the radioactive processes and in chemical reactions. Thus when a metal is oxidized it emits electrons. Whatever be the source of the electron, its electrical charge has always been found to be from 4.65×10^{-10} to 4.69×10^{-10} absolute electrostatic units. The mass of the electron is about 1,800 times smaller than the mass of the atom of hydrogen, which is the lightest chemical element and which has a mass of about 1.61×10^{-24} grams. The mass of the electron is not ordinary chemical or ponderable matter, but apparent or electromagnetic mass and is due to the electromagnetic field which surrounds the electron in motion. The radius of the electron has been found to be 1.8×10^{-13} cm. To illustrate the size of an electron as compared with an atom, imagine a hydrogen atom increased in volume to that of a large cathedral, the electron being increased proportionally. Then the volume of the electron would be that of a fly flying about in the vast space. In spite of this minute size of the electron, or rather because of this minute size, the actions of the elementary charge are surprisingly great. Thus the electrical field on the surface of the electron is 1.4×10^{15} , or 10^{12} times stronger than any which we are able to produce by artificial means.

An electric current in a metal consists of electrons in motion, while a current through electrolytic solutions and through gases at ordinary and reduced pressures consists of positive and negative ions. As the pressure in a discharge tube becomes smaller, the electrical current is car-

ried more and more by free electrons or cathode rays which, by their impact on a solid obstacle, give rise to Roentgen rays.

The electron theory aims to explain all the phenomena of light, electricity, and magnetism, and in many cases it is the only theory that is able to explain the great variety of physical phenomena. The electron forms a part of each atom of the universe and it plays an important rôle in the chemical theories of matter. It is probable that the forces of affinity in the chemical reactions can be reduced to electrical forces between the electron and the positive charge of the atom. Thus chemical phenomena are drawn into the circle of the electron theory. Even mechanics, the oldest branch of exact natural science, is affected by the discovery that the mass of the electron depends on its velocity, so that Newton's equations of dynamics, the basis of the physical science, have to be slightly changed*. Finally, in the radioactive transformations, in which one element is transformed into another element, the electron plays an essential rôle.

An electron in motion is surrounded by a magnetic field. When an electron moves in a closed orbit, it is accompanied by a permanent magnetic field identical with that of an elementary magnet. Ampère considered the elementary magnets of iron as due to electrical currents flowing in closed molecular orbits without resistance. If we replace these currents of Ampère's theory by electrons moving in closed orbits, we have the fundamental idea of the electron theory of magnetism.

4. *Electromagnetic Force Due to an Electron in Motion.*—Rowland's experiments show that a moving electron is surrounded by a magnetic field. Consider a small element dl , Fig. 1. of the conductor carrying the current i . Let m be the magnetic pole, and ϕ the angle between the direction of the current and the radius r . Then the electromagnetic force produced at m by this element is

$$dK = \frac{m i dl \sin \phi}{r^2}$$

Suppose

$$m = 1$$

then

$$dK = \frac{i dl \sin \phi}{r^2} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Suppose now that the current i is that due to an electron moving with a velocity v , where v is not greater than one third that of the velocity of light. If the electron moves through the distance dl in the time dt , we will have

$$dl = v dt \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Also

$$i = \frac{e}{dt} \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

* For all engineering purposes and for the motion of the heavenly bodies this change is too small to be considered. It is only when the velocity of the mass approaches in magnitude the velocity of light that the effect is appreciable.

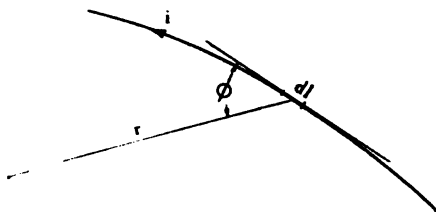


FIG. 1

Substituting (2) and (3) in (1) we get

$$dK = \frac{ev \sin \phi}{r^2} \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

If we consider a sphere of radius r , Fig. 2, with an electron at the center moving with a velocity v , the magnetic force at the point m will be, from equation (4)

$$dK = \frac{ev \sin \phi}{r^2}$$

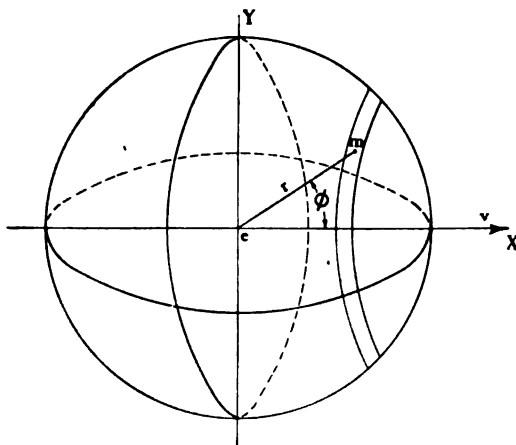


FIG. 2

This is the same for all points on the surface of the sphere where ϕ is the same. Therefore there is a circle around the sphere where the magnetic force is constant. The direction of the magnetic force is at right angles to the motion of e , or in a plane perpendicular to the x -axis.

5. *Diamagnetism.*— As defined before, a diamagnetic body is one which when placed in a magnetic field becomes slightly magnetized in a direction opposite to that of paramagnetic substances. Thus, a cylindrical diamagnetic body will set itself perpendicular to a magnetic field.

Consider in any atom an electron of mass m and charge e , Fig. 3. moving with a velocity v , in an orbit of radius r the plane of which is perpendicular to a magnetic field of intensity H . In the absence of the magnetic field, the centrifugal force on the electron is opposed by elastic forces, which we will suppose to be directed toward the center of the orbit and to be proportional to its radius. Then

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = fr \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

where f is the force of attraction toward the center, when
 $r = 1 \text{ cm.}$

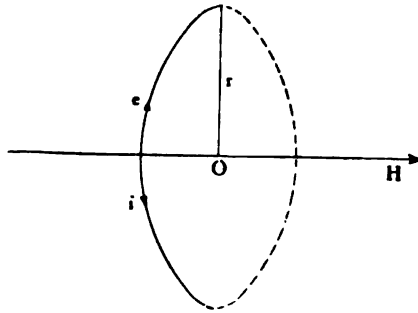


FIG. 3

Now apply the external magnetic field, and the electron is subject to a force at right angles to the field and to the direction of its motion, that is, along the radius of its orbit. The magnitude of this force is found as above by applying the fundamental law of electromagnetism. As before we have

$$\begin{aligned} dK &= \frac{mi \, dl \, \sin \phi}{r^2} \\ &= \frac{m}{r^2} i dl \frac{dl}{dt} \sin \phi \\ &= Hev \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

If the angle $\phi = 90^\circ$, the force which the magnetic field exerts on the electron moving through the distance dl is

$$dK = Hev$$

Applying Ampère's rule we see that if the electron is negatively charged the force is directed outward along the radius. Since the electromagnetic forces acting on the electron are perpendicular to the direction of its motion, the magnitude of its velocity v is unchanged by the action of these forces.

Denoting the period of the new orbit produced when the field H is acting by T' and its radius by r' , we have

$$\frac{mv^2}{r'} = fr' - Hev$$

or

$$\frac{mv^2}{r'} = f - \frac{Hev}{r'} \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

(6) — (5) gives
$$\frac{mv^2}{r'^2} - \frac{mv^2}{r^2} = -\frac{Hev}{r'} \dots \dots \dots (7)$$

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v}$$

or

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 r^2}{v^2}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{v^2}{r^2} = \frac{4\pi^2}{T^2} \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

Also

$$T' = \frac{2\pi r'}{v}$$

or

$$T'^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 r'^2}{v^2}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{v^2}{r'^2} = \frac{4\pi^2}{T'^2} \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

Substituting (8) and (9) in (7)

$$\frac{4\pi^2 m}{T'^2} - \frac{4\pi^2 m}{T^2} = -\frac{2\pi He}{T'}$$

whence

$$\frac{1}{T'^2} - \frac{1}{T^2} = -\frac{He}{2\pi m T'}$$

or

$$\frac{T^2 - T'^2}{T^2 T'^2} = -\frac{He}{2\pi m T'}$$

This may be written

$$\frac{(T + T')(T - T')}{T^2 T'^2} = -\frac{He}{2\pi m T'} \dots \dots \dots (10)$$

Now the diamagnetic phenomena are very small, therefore we can without appreciable error put

$$T + T' = 2T$$

and

$$TT' = T^2$$

Substituting these values in (10) we have,

$$T - T' = -\frac{HeT^2}{4\pi m} \dots \dots \dots (11)$$

In order to calculate the intensity of the induced magnetization, let us replace the revolving electron by an equivalent current flowing in a circuit coincident with its orbit. The strength i of the equivalent current is given by

$$i = \frac{e}{T}$$

Now the magnetic moment of a circuit of area A carrying a current i is given by

$$M_1 = Ai$$

In the case of an undisturbed electron revolving in an atom

$$i = \frac{e}{T}$$

and

$$A = \pi r^2$$

where r is the radius of the orbit.

Therefore the moment of the equivalent elementary magnet is

$$M_1 = \frac{e}{T} \pi r^2$$

When the magnetic field H is applied this becomes

$$M_1' = \frac{e}{T'} \pi r'^2$$

Let

$$M_1 - M_1' = \Delta M_1$$

be the induced magnetic moment for one revolving electron.

Therefore

$$\Delta M_1 = e\pi \left(\frac{r^2}{T} - \frac{r'^2}{T'} \right).$$

If we have N electrons revolving in unit volume, the induced magnetic moment per unit volume is

$$\Delta M = N \Delta M_1 = Ne\pi \left(\frac{r^2}{T} - \frac{r'^2}{T'} \right) \dots \dots \dots (12)$$

From (8)

$$\frac{r^2}{T} = \frac{v^2 T}{4\pi^2} \dots \dots \dots (13)$$

From (9)

$$\frac{r'^2}{T'} = \frac{v'^2 T'}{4\pi^2} \dots \dots \dots (14)$$

Substitute (13) and (14) in (12) and

$$\Delta M = \frac{Ne\pi v^2}{4\pi^2} (T - T') \dots \dots \dots (15)$$

From (11)

$$T - T' = -\frac{HeT^2}{4\pi m}$$

Therefore (15) becomes

$$\Delta M = -\frac{Ne^2 v^2 H T^2}{(4\pi)^2 m} \dots \dots \dots (16)$$

Substitute (13) in (16) and there is obtained

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta M &= -\frac{Ne^2 H r^2}{4m} \\ &= -\frac{HNe^2 r^2}{4m} \end{aligned}$$

This is the induced magnetism per unit volume due to an external magnetic field H . Therefore ΔM is proportional to H , or

$$\Delta M = -kH,$$

where

$$k = \frac{Ne^2 r^2}{4m}$$

is defined to be the diamagnetic susceptibility.

All the quantities on the right hand side of this equation are essentially positive, hence ΔM is negative and the body is diamagnetic whatever the sign of the electronic charge e . Thus all substances possess the diamagnetic property according to the above theory. Some substances are also paramagnetic, that is, one phenomenon is superimposed on the other.

In the above calculations it has been assumed that all the electronic orbits are so arranged that their axes are in the direction of the magnetic intensity of the inducing field and their planes perpendicular to their direction. It would be more accurate to assume that the axes are distributed in all directions. However, the change introduced by this assumption would consist only in multiplying the right hand side of the last equation by a proper fraction whose value is not very different from unity.

Multiplying numerator and denominator of the above expression for k by m , the mass of an electron, then

$$k = \frac{Nme^2r^2}{4m^2} = \frac{\rho}{4} \left(\frac{e}{m} \right)^2 r^2 \dots \dots \dots (17)$$

where ρ is the density of the electrons, or the mass of the electrons per unit volume. It is seen that the effect produced contains as one factor, the square of the ratio $\frac{e}{m}$, and since this ratio is at least a thousand times greater for the negative electrons than for the positive corpuscles it is the former, which are present in all substances, that play the essential rôle in the production of diamagnetism.

In the case of water, of which the diamagnetic constant is $.8 \times 10^{-8}$, the density ρ of the negative electrons, which constitute only a part of the molecule, is less than unity and probably greater than $1/2000$, the ratio of the mass of a negative electron to that of the atom of hydrogen. The ratio e/m is known and is

$$\frac{e}{m} = 1.8 \times 10^9$$

absolute electromagnetic units.

Substituting the above values in equation (17) we get, using 1 for ρ , $r < 10^{-8}$ cm.

Substituting $1/2000$ for ρ we get $r > 2 \times 10^{-10}$ cm.

Therefore

$$2 \times 10^{-10} < r < 10^{-8}.$$

Experimental determinations indicate that r actually lies within these limits.

As the electronic orbits are considered to belong to the interior of the atom, which is not affected by temperature, we should expect that the diamagnetic susceptibility does not depend upon temperature. Curie's results indicate that, in general, this is the case, although du Bois and Honda found a large number of exceptions. Also the position

of the lines of the spectrum, which are due to the revolution of electrons inside the atom, is almost entirely independent of the temperature.

Equation (16) above may be interpreted simply as follows. The equation

$$\Delta M = - \frac{HNe^2r^2}{4m}$$

expresses the increase in the magnetic moment per unit volume, which contains N electrons. For one electron the increase in the magnetic moment is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta M_1 &= - \frac{He^2r^2}{4m} \\ &= - \frac{He^2r^2\pi}{4m\pi}\end{aligned}$$

This may be written

$$\Delta M_1 = - \frac{He^2A}{4\pi m} = - \frac{e^2}{4\pi m} HA \dots\dots\dots (18)$$

if the electron describes a circular orbit whose area is πr^2 . The change of the magnetic moment of the electronic orbit is determined by the flux of magnetic induction HA which is produced by the external field passing through the orbit.

This is exactly the result that is obtained by merely applying to the electronic orbits the elementary laws of induction for the elementary circuits. Let us suppose that the resistance of the orbit is zero, and the self-inductance equal to ΔL . If i is the current, the equation for the induced e. m. f. gives

$$\frac{d(\Delta Li)}{dt} = - \frac{d(\phi)}{dt} = - \frac{d(HA)}{dt}$$

whence

$$\Delta Li = - HA \dots\dots\dots (19)$$

if H is zero in the beginning.

$$\Delta M_1 = \Delta Ai = - \frac{e^2}{4\pi m} HA$$

Substituting the value of HA given by (19),

$$\Delta Ai = \frac{e^2}{4\pi m} \Delta Li$$

It is sufficient to take

$$Ai = \frac{e^2}{4\pi m} Li$$

Whence since

$$\begin{aligned}A &= \pi r^2 \\ L &= \frac{4\pi^2 mr^2}{e^2}\end{aligned}$$

Thus the apparent self-induction is proportional to the mass of the electron and to the square of its radius, and inversely proportional to the square of the charge. This self-induction will identify itself with a real self-induction corresponding to the creation of a magnetic field by the electronic orbit, only if the inertia of the electron is wholly of electro-magnetic origin.

If we assume that the self-induction of the current is due to the electromagnetic inertia of the electron,

$$\frac{1}{2}Li^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

where

$$i = \frac{e}{T},$$

and

$$v = \frac{2\pi r}{T}$$

Whence

$$L \frac{e^2}{T^2} = \frac{m 4\pi^2 r^2}{T^2}$$

or

$$L = \frac{4\pi^2 m r^2}{e^2}$$

which corresponds to the value of L found above.

The diamagnetic modification corresponds to a slight change in the magnetic moment of the original circuit. We have seen that this magnetic moment has the value

$$Mi = Ai = A \frac{e}{T}.$$

This magnetic moment, owing to the variation of the magnetic field, undergoes a change

$$\Delta M_1 = - \frac{He^2 r^2}{4m}$$

The relative variation of the magnetic moment is

$$\frac{\Delta M_1}{M_1} = - \frac{HTe}{4\pi m}$$

which in the case of all diamagnetic bodies is very small. Now $\frac{e}{m}$ is of the order of 10^7 for negative electrons and still less for positive particles. T must necessarily have a value larger than that of the period of light which is of the order of 10^{-15} , for if the time of vibration were so small, the magnet would be a spontaneous source of light and permanent magnetism would be impossible. Let us assume that T is of the order 10^{-12} , which corresponds to the longest wave length that has been isolated in the spectrum of mercury vapor. Then in order to make $\frac{\Delta M_1}{M_1}$ approach unity, H needs to be of the order of only 10^4 . Now we are able to produce fields of the order of 10^5 , which, on the above assumption, would cause a change in the magnetic moment of the diamagnetic substance of one tenth of that of its original value.

6. Magnetic Energy.—In order to calculate the energy required to produce the diamagnetic modification, let us assume an electronic orbit which is without motion during the establishment of the magnetic field H . The magnetic force is perpendicular to the plane of the orbit and therefore produces no work. If there is a displacement dl along the

orbit (Fig. 4) and the electric force is E , the work done is

$$\begin{aligned} dW_1 &= eEdl \cos \alpha \\ &= e(E_x dx + E_y dy + E_z dz) \end{aligned}$$

or

$$W_1 = e \int_c (E_x dx + E_y dy + E_z dz).$$

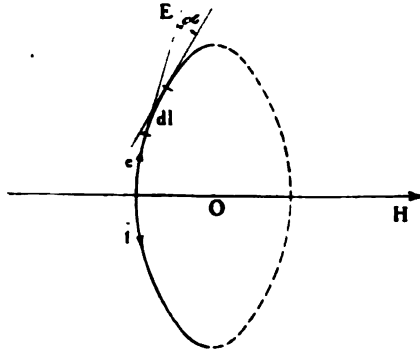


FIG. 4

During the time T of one revolution of the electron, which is of the order of 10^{-18} seconds, a time extremely short in comparison with the time necessary for the establishment of the field by the creation of currents or the displacement of magnets, E_x , E_y , E_z will not change appreciably and the work W may be calculated by an application of Stokes's Theorem.

$$\begin{aligned} W_1 &= e \int_c (E_x dx + E_y dy + E_z dz) = e \int \int_A \left[\left(\frac{\partial E_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial z} \right) \cos nx \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \left(\frac{\partial E_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial x} \right) \cos ny + \left(\frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y} \right) \cos nz \right] dA \dots \dots \dots (20) \end{aligned}$$

where n is the normal to the surface.

Introduce Maxwell's equations,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial H_x}{\partial t} &= - \left(\frac{\partial E_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial z} \right) \\ \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial H_y}{\partial t} &= - \left(\frac{\partial E_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial x} \right) \\ \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial H_z}{\partial t} &= - \left(\frac{\partial E_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial y} \right) \end{aligned} \right\} \dots \dots \dots (21)$$

c , the ratio between electrical energy expressed in electrostatic and electromagnetic units, is already included in E_x , E_y , and E_z of equation (20), therefore it should be omitted from equation (21) before substitution. Substituting (21) in (20), we have

$$W_1 = -e \int \int_A \left[\frac{\partial H_x}{\partial t} \cos nx + \frac{\partial H_y}{\partial t} \cos ny + \frac{\partial H_z}{\partial t} \cos nz \right] dA$$

Now

$$H_x \cos nx + H_y \cos ny + H_z \cos nz = H$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} W_1 &= -e \int_A \frac{dH}{dt} dA \\ &= -e \frac{dH}{dt} A \end{aligned}$$

since $\frac{dH}{dt}$ is the same for all points of the area A .

The work done by the increasing magnetic field per unit of time is

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{W}_1 &= -\frac{e}{T} \frac{dH}{dt} A \\ &= -iA \frac{dH}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$W_1 = -M_1 \frac{dH}{dt}$$

The work done in the time dt is

$$dW_1 = -M_1 dH$$

whence

$$W_1 = -\int_0^H M_1 dH \dots \dots \dots (22)$$

where M_1 is the magnetic moment of the electronic current in the direction dH . This work, done during the establishment of the magnetic field H by the current, or by the displacement of a magnet, is transformed into kinetic or potential energy of the electron which produces the electronic current. It represents the potential energy between the revolving electron and the magnetic field H . This transformation of energy accompanies the production of the diamagnetic state.

If the initial magnetic moment of the revolving electron is equal to M_o , the external field being zero, the magnetic moment under the action of the field will be

$$M_o + \Delta M_1 = M_o - \frac{e^2 r^2 H}{4m}$$

From (22)

$$W_1 = -\int_0^H \left(M_o - \frac{e^2 r^2 H}{4m} \right) dH = -M_o H + \frac{e^2 r^2 H^2}{8m}$$

If the molecule has N orbits, the resultant initial moment M will be

$$M = M_o N$$

whence

$$W = -MH + \frac{e^2 r^2 H^2 N}{8m}$$

If the body is purely diamagnetic, M is zero and we have simply

$$W = \frac{e^2 r^2 H^2}{8m} N$$

This is the energy brought into play in purely diamagnetic phenomena. It is always present even in the case where the body is paramagnetic, but is small in comparison with the energy of the latter.

7. *Paramagnetism*.— We have seen that in all cases the creation of an exterior magnetic field modifies the electronic orbits by polarizing diamagnetically, all the molecules. This phenomenon is manifested only in the case where the resultant moment of the electronic orbits is zero, when the matter is diamagnetic in the ordinary sense of the word.

If the resultant moment is not zero, upon the diamagnetic phenomena is superimposed another phenomenon due to the orientation of the molecular magnets by the external field. The substance is then paramagnetic if the mutual action between molecular magnets is negligible, as in the case of gases and of solutions, and ferromagnetic in the case where the mutual actions play the essential rôle. As soon as the paramagnetism appears it is, as a rule, enormous in comparison with the diamagnetism and therefore completely conceals it. This explains the absence of continuity between paramagnetism and diamagnetism; paramagnetism may not exist; but if it exists, it hides completely the diamagnetism.

Therefore, substances whose atoms have their electrons in revolution in such a way that their effects are additive, are paramagnetic. The atoms of such substances may be looked upon as elementary magnets. The energy of such an elementary magnet may be represented by

$$W = -MH \cos \alpha$$

where α is the angle that the magnet makes with the magnetic field H .

If a magnetic field acts on a paramagnetic substance in a gaseous state and if the molecules have no thermal agitation, they will rearrange themselves in a direction parallel to the magnetic field. By virtue of this rearrangement they will, like a falling body, lose their original potential energy and acquire kinetic energy.

8. *Curie's Rule*.— Let us consider a paramagnetic body in the gaseous state, such as oxygen, whose molecules have a magnetic moment M . The molecules of such a body will turn, when under the influence of a uniform magnetic field H , in such a way as to place their magnetic axes parallel to the field. Let us calculate the magnetic moment per unit volume after the rearrangement has taken place.

If the magnetic moment makes an angle α with the direction of the uniform field H , then the molecule possesses a potential energy equal to

$$-MH \cos \alpha$$

The increase of this potential energy is derived from the kinetic energy of rotation of the molecules in the same way in which the potential energy of gravitation of the molecules of a gas is derived from the kinetic energy of translation when it is rising. The resultant inequalities in the distribution of kinetic energy between the orientations and the degrees of freedom of the molecules, rotation and translation, are not compatible with thermal equilibrium. A rearrangement takes place at the instant of the collisions during which the magnetic polarity appears and the energy

$$-HdM$$

of thermal agitation turns into potential energy of magnetization.

If the molecules have no relative potential energy of orientations, as in the case of gases and liquids, it is necessary, in order to maintain the medium at a constant temperature during the process of magnetization, to introduce into the system the energy $-HdM$, in the form of heat. In the case of a solid, where the molecules have a potential energy of orientation, this heat will be introduced only in case a cycle has been performed.

In the former case, we may apply the principles of thermodynamics in order to find the law experimentally established by Curie, since the process is perfectly reversible. The magnetic moment M for a given mass of the substance will be a function of the magnetic field H , and of the absolute temperature T . During a reversible change dH , dT , one can take out of the system a quantity of heat of which the portion which depends on H is

$$\begin{aligned} dQ &= HdM \\ &= H \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial H} dH + \frac{\partial M}{\partial T} dT \right). \end{aligned}$$

In a reversible process

$$dA = \frac{dQ}{T}$$

Therefore

$$dA = \frac{H}{T} \frac{\partial M}{\partial T} dT + \frac{H}{T} \frac{\partial M}{\partial H} dH.$$

According to the second law of thermodynamics this must be an exact differential, therefore

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial H} \left(\frac{H}{T} \frac{\partial M}{\partial T} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \left(\frac{H}{T} \frac{\partial M}{\partial H} \right)$$

or

$$\frac{1}{T} \frac{\partial M}{\partial T} + \frac{H}{T} \frac{\partial^2 M}{\partial T \partial H} = \frac{H}{T} \frac{\partial^2 M}{\partial H \partial T} - \frac{H}{T} \frac{2\partial M}{\partial H}$$

whence

$$\frac{1}{T} \frac{\partial M}{\partial T} = - \frac{H}{T^2} \frac{\partial M}{\partial H}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial T} = - \frac{H}{T} \frac{\partial M}{\partial T}$$

or

$$\frac{\frac{\partial M}{\partial T}}{\frac{\partial M}{\partial H}} = - \frac{H}{T} \dots \dots \dots (23)$$

The general integral of (23) is

$$M = f(H/T) \dots \dots \dots (24)$$

In the beginning of the magnetization, where the susceptibility may be considered constant at a given temperature

$$M = kH \dots \dots \dots (25)$$

Comparing (24) with (25), we see that k , the paramagnetic susceptibility, must vary inversely as the absolute temperature, that is

$$k = A/T$$

This is called Curie's Rule, and the constant A is sometimes called Curie's constant. When this rule was first given out by Curie, it was thought to be general, but since then some substances have been found in which temperature does not affect the diamagnetic susceptibility k , and others in which k actually increases with increase of temperature.

9. *Langevin's Theory.*— The following comparison, which is due to Langevin,* will make clear the theory which precedes. Imagine a gaseous mass contained in a given receptacle Fig. 5, without being subject to the action of gravity. The molecules will distribute themselves in such a manner that the density of the gas will be the same at all points, which is similar to that which takes place in the case of a magnetic gas, such as oxygen, in the absence of an exterior magnetic field when the molecules have their axes distributed uniformly in all directions, Fig. 7.

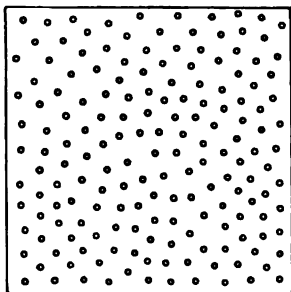


FIG. 5

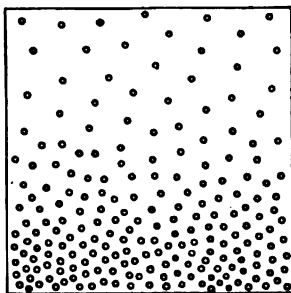


FIG. 6

If the force of gravitation is applied, Fig. 6, the molecules will acquire an acceleration directed toward the base, and, in the absence of mutual collisions, each molecule will have a greater velocity at the bottom than at the top of the vessel. But this inequality of velocity is incompatible with thermal equilibrium, and a rearrangement will take place due to the mutual collisions, after which the distribution which is established is given by the formula of barometric pressure. The center of gravity is lowered, and in order to maintain the gas at the initial temperature, it is necessary to remove from it a quantity of heat equivalent to the product of the mass of the gas by this lowering of the center of gravity, or equivalent to the loss of potential energy. One deduces from a thermodynamic reasoning analogous to that given above, that this lowering of the center of gravity is inversely proportional to the absolute temperature.

After the rearrangement in a mass of gas of uniform temperature, the distribution of the molecules takes place between the various regions in a manner such that the molecules will be more numerous where the

*P. Langevin, Ann. de Chem. et de Phys., Ser. 8, Vol. 5, p. 70, 1908.

potential energy is the least, that is to say, at the lowest points in the case of gravity. Boltzmann has calculated the distribution by generalizing the law of barometric pressure. The ratio of the densities of the gas in two points between which the potential energy varies by W is

$$e^{\frac{W}{RT}}$$

where e is the base of Napierian logarithms, T the absolute temperature of the gas and R the constant of the equation of a perfect gas, a constant such that, according to the kinetic theory, RT represents two thirds of the mean kinetic energy of translation.

The change when the magnetic field H is applied to a paramagnetic gas such as oxygen, Figs. 7 and 8, is the same as in the case of gravity except that here we have a rotation of the axes of the elementary magnets which assume the direction of H . Here too there is a loss of potential energy and a gain of heat, the rise in temperature being due to the thermal agitation of the molecules which produce a certain amount of heat due to their rotation.

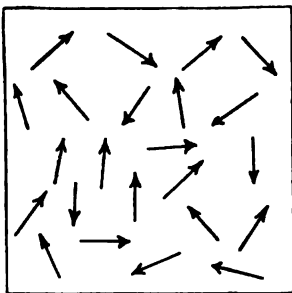


FIG. 7

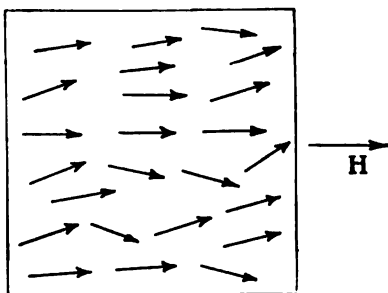


FIG. 8

The distribution of the molecules between the various orientations will be determined by the static equilibrium which will establish itself under the superimposed influence of the potential magnetic energy, $MH \cos \alpha$, and the energy RT of thermal agitation, the molecules being from preference oriented in the direction of least potential energy, that is to say, with their magnetic axes in the direction of the field. If one considers the distribution of the magnetic axes between the various directions, the density per unit of solid angle will vary from one direction to the other proportional to

$$e^{\frac{MH \cos \alpha}{RT}}$$

all directions being equally probable if M or $H=0$. The number of molecules whose axes are directed within the solid angle $d\omega$, Fig. 9, will be

$$dn = Ke^{\frac{MH \cos \alpha}{RT}} d\omega$$

where the element $d\omega$ is a zone of aperture $d\alpha$ around the direction of the field

$$d\omega = 2\pi \sin \alpha d\alpha$$

α varying from 0 to π .

Therefore

$$dn = Ke^{\frac{MH \cos a}{RT}} 2\pi \sin a da \dots\dots\dots (26)$$

The total number of molecules per unit volume N will be

$$N = 2\pi K \int_0^\pi e^{a \cos a} \sin a da$$

where

$$a = \frac{MH}{RT}$$

Let

$$\cos a = x$$

then

$$dx = -\sin a da$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} N &= 2\pi K \int_{-1}^{+1} e^{ax} dx \\ &= \frac{2\pi K}{a} \left[e^{ax} \right]_{-1}^{+1} \\ &= \frac{2\pi K}{a} (e^a - e^{-a}) \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\frac{e^a - e^{-a}}{2} = \sinh a$$

Therefore

$$N = \frac{4\pi K}{a} \sinh a$$

whence

$$K = \frac{aN}{4\pi \sinh a} \dots\dots\dots (27)$$

The total magnetic moment of the N molecules is evidently directed parallel to the field and is equal to the sum of the projections of the component moments on this direction. For the unit of volume supposed to contain N molecules, this resultant moment represents the intensity of magnetization I .

$$I = \int M \cos a dn.$$

Substitute for dn its value given by equation (26) and

$$I = \int_0^\pi M \cos a K e^{a \cos a} 2\pi \sin a da$$

Therefore

$$I = 2\pi MK \int_{-1}^{+1} x e^{ax} dx$$

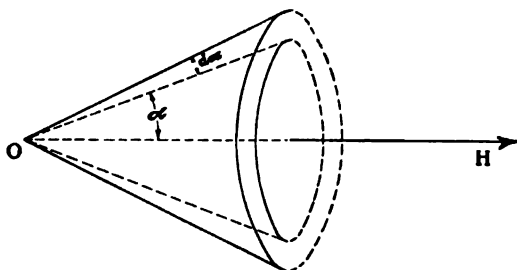


FIG. 9

Now

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} x e^{ax} dx = 2 \left(\frac{\cosh a}{a} - \frac{\sinh a}{a^2} \right),$$

therefore

$$I = 4\pi MK \left(\frac{\cosh a}{a} - \frac{\sinh a}{a^2} \right)$$

Substitute the value of K given by equation (27) and

$$I = MN \left(\frac{\cosh a}{\sinh a} - \frac{1}{a} \right)$$

For a given number of molecules N , I is therefore a function solely of a , that is, of H/T , in accordance with the results given by thermodynamics.

The expression $\left(\frac{\cosh a}{\sinh a} - \frac{1}{a} \right)$ vanishes with a , which is proportional to H , and tends toward unity when a increases indefinitely, the intensity of magnetization approaching the maximum value $I_m = MH$ which corresponds to saturation, that is, the condition when all the molecular magnets are oriented parallel to the magnetic field.

The curve of magnetization of a magnetic gas at constant temperature ODE , Fig. 10, representing I/I_m as a function of a , that is, as a function of H , would be represented by the expression

$$\begin{aligned} I/I_m &= \frac{\cosh a}{\sinh a} - \frac{1}{a} \dots \dots \dots (28) \\ &= f(H/T). \end{aligned}$$

It is evident that the magnetic susceptibility will not be constant and I will be proportional to H only for values small compared with unity.

Developing equation (28) in series we have

$$\frac{I}{I_m} = \frac{\cosh a}{\sinh a} - \frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{90}a^2 + \frac{4}{45.42}a^4 \dots \dots \dots (29)$$

Taking account only of the terms of the first degree with respect to a we find

$$I = \frac{I_m}{3}a = \frac{M^2NH}{3RT} = k' \frac{H}{T} = kH$$

where

$$k = \frac{M^2 N}{3RT}$$

that is the paramagnetic susceptibility is inversely proportional to the absolute temperature, which agrees with the rule obtained experimentally by M. Curie.

If all the molecules were oriented parallel to the field, that is if the body were magnetized to the point of saturation, the intensity of magnetization would be,

$$I_m = MN$$

Combining this with the expression above, we get

$$k = \frac{M^2 N^2}{3RTN} = \frac{I_m^2}{3p}$$

p being the pressure of the gas at which k is measured.

Curie found for oxygen at the standard pressure 10^5 and at a temperature of 0°C. ,

$$k = 1.43 \times 10^{-7}$$

per unit of volume.

$$\begin{aligned} I_m^2 &= k \times 3p \\ &= 1.43 \times 10^{-7} \times 3 \times 10^5 \\ &= 0.43 \end{aligned}$$

whence

$$I_m = 0.65$$

This would correspond for liquid oxygen, which is at least 500 times more dense than the gas, to a maximum magnetization.

$$I_m = 325$$

which is not very much smaller than that of iron. In fact, liquid oxygen possesses such intense magnetic properties that it forms a liquid bridge between the poles of an electromagnet.

From the above, one is able to obtain the order of magnitude of the quantity a under ordinary experimental conditions.

$$a = \frac{MH}{RT} = \frac{MNH}{NRT} = \frac{I_m H}{NRT}$$

But NR is the constant of a perfect gas for the unit of volume which is supposed to contain N molecules. Under the normal conditions for which I_m has been calculated, one will have

$$NRT = p = 10^5 \text{ c. g. s. units.}$$

Therefore

$$a = 0.65 \times 10^{-6} H.$$

For a field of 10,000 units a will be 0.0065, and one would still be near the origin of the curve of magnetization, Fig. 10, where the curve coincides with the straight line. In order to make $a = 1$, the region where the curve commences to leave the straight line, it would be necessary to have fields greater than 10^6 , which we are not able to produce.

One sees then, in the ferromagnetic substances, the importance of the mutual actions between molecules which alone makes possible magnetic saturation. For the same exterior fields, magnetic saturation is still far removed in the case of paramagnetic substances where mutual actions are not appreciable.

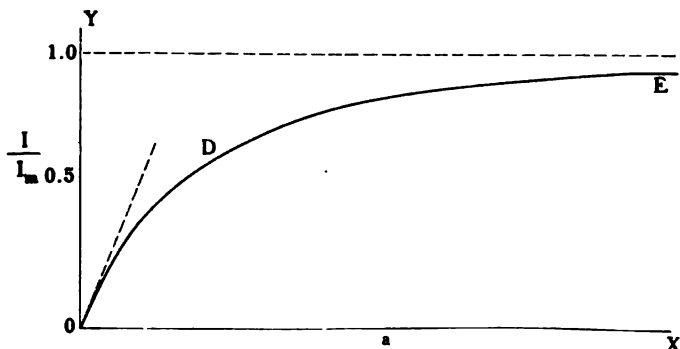


Fig. 10

From this point of view, Curie's comparison of the transition between paramagnetism and ferromagnetism to the transition between gaseous and liquid states where the mutual actions play an essential rôle, is perfectly justifiable. In the pure gaseous state, as in paramagnetism, each molecule reacts individually by its own kinetic energy against the exterior forces of pressure and magnetic field.

10. *Electronic Orbit.*— If one assumes that the magnetic moment M of one oxygen molecule is due to only one electron of charge equal to that of the atom of hydrogen obtained in electrolysis, moving along a circular orbit whose radius is equal to the radius of the molecule of air, 1.5×10^{-8} cm., one can calculate the velocity of the electron along the orbit. We have

$$\begin{aligned} M &= Ai \\ &= A \frac{e}{T} \\ &= \frac{\pi r^2 e v}{2 \pi r} \\ &= \frac{r e v}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Also

$$I_m = MN = Ne \frac{rv}{2}.$$

But the product Ne is given by electrolysis, since e is the charge of the atom of hydrogen. Under normal conditions

$$\begin{aligned} Ne &= 1.22 \times 10^{10} \text{ electrostatic units} \\ &= 0.4 \text{ electromagnetic units.} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$I_m = 0.65 = 0.4 \frac{1.5 \times 10^{-8}}{2} v$$

whence

$$v = 2 \times 10^8 \text{ cm. per sec.}$$

Suppose the revolving negative charge e , Fig. 11, to be attracted toward the center of its orbit by an equal positive charge. Then the centrifugal force equals the centripetal force, that is

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{e^2}{r^2}$$

or

$$v^2 = \frac{e^2}{mr}$$

where e is measured in electrostatic units.

$$e = 4.65 \times 10^{-10}$$

$$r = 1.5 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm.}$$

$$m = 8.77 \times 10^{-28} \text{ gram.}$$

Therefore

$$v^2 = \frac{(4.65 \times 10^{-10})^2}{8.77 \times 10^{-28} \times 1.5 \times 10^{-8}}$$

$$= 1.6 \times 10^{16}$$

or

$$v = 1.2 \times 10^8 \text{ cm. per sec.,}$$

which is in accordance with the value found by the above method.

It is a remarkable thing that the magnetic moment of the molecule of oxygen can be due to the revolution of a single electron. The same is probably true in the case of iron of which the maximum magnetization is, as we have seen, of the same order of magnitude as that of oxygen. The other electrons in the atom neutralize each other as in the purely diamagnetic body.

The paramagnetic electron also probably plays a part in chemical actions, the number of electrons of a molecule acting being equal to the valence. Therefore, the paramagnetic properties of an element change with change of molecular combinations, while diamagnetism seems to be an internal and invariable property of the atom.

11. *Molecular Field of Ferromagnetic Substances.*—Weiss Hypothesis: Each magnetic molecule in a ferromagnetic substance is subject to a uniform intrinsic magnetic field NI proportional to the intensity of magnetization I and acting in the same direction. This molecular magnetic field is due to the action of the neighboring molecules. It may be called the internal magnetic field in comparison with the internal pressure of Von der Waal's equation. This field, added to the external field, accounts for the great intensity of magnetization of ferromagnetic bodies by means of the laws of paramagnetic bodies, in the same way as the internal pressure, added to the external pressure, accounts for the great density of the liquids by invoking the compressibility of the gas.

This hypothesis has proved to be in agreement with experimental facts in a large number of cases. Among these cases may be named the properties of pyrrhotite, the heat developed when a substance passes from the paramagnetic to the ferromagnetic state and the law of temperature and intensity of magnetization of magnetite. The properties of hysteresis of iron can be given a theoretical interpretation and from $H_m = NI$, where N is a constant, I the intensity of magnetization and H_m the

intrinsic molecular field, can be calculated the absolute values of the elementary magnets and the fundamental quantities of nature.

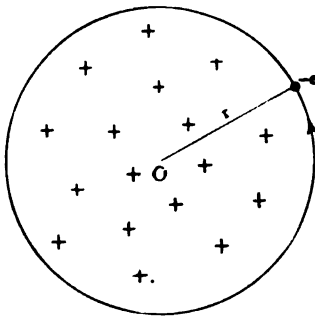


FIG. 11

There are, however, exceptions to this hypothesis, such as the law of approach to saturation and many temperature variations of ferromagnetism. Liquid oxygen does not follow the temperature law nor do iron and nickel at very low temperatures. Furthermore, when iron loses its magnetism we should expect that its volume would increase since the molecules lose their mutual actions and should go farther apart. On the contrary, iron contracts in passing from the ferromagnetic to the paramagnetic state. Colby* has shown that, in the case of nickel, the coefficient of expansion decreases very decidedly as the metal passes through the critical temperature.

II. EXPERIMENTAL DETERMINATION OF THE MAGNETIC PROPERTIES OF CRYSTALS

12. Pyrrhotite.—Pyrrhotite is one of the most simple of the crystal-line magnetic substances. It is composed of sulphur and iron in quantities that are not perfectly constant; it also contains traces of nickel. Various authors have proposed the formulæ Fe_7S_8 , Fe_8S_9 , etc., all of which can be expressed in the form, $n(\text{FeS}) + \text{FeS}_2$. The color of pyrrhotite varies from brown to dark bronze.

Weiss† has shown that, in the case of pyrrhotite, if it be brought into a magnetic field in such a manner that the plane of its hexagonal base is perpendicular to the lines of force, little or no attraction will be exerted on it, while there is a very strong attraction with it in any other position. From this we see that there is one direction in which the magnetization is practically impossible. However, pyrrhotite is strongly magnetized in a plane perpendicular to this direction. This last named plane is called the plane of magnetization. In this plane, which is parallel to the base, there are two directions at right angles to each other in which the magnetization is different: (1) the direction of easy magnetization; (2) the direction of difficult magnetization.

*W. F. Colby, *Phys. Rev.*, Vol. XXX, No. 4, p. 506, 1910.

†Weiss, *Jour. de Phys.*, ser. 3, Vol. 8, p. 542, 1899.

13. *Apparatus and Methods for Determining the Magnetic Properties of Pyrrhotite.*—Weiss,* in his experimental determination of the magnetic properties of pyrrhotite, used two methods: (1) the ballistic method, in which a ballistic galvanometer was used to measure the quantity of electricity induced in a coil surrounding the sample by variations in the magnetic field; (2) a method in which he measured the couple produced on the crystal by the field.

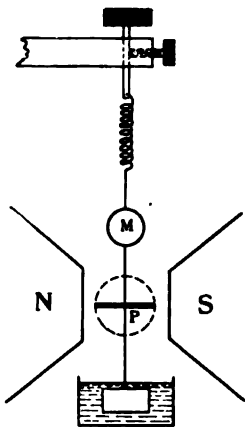


FIG. 12

The latter method is the more sensitive and permits of the examination of much smaller specimens. In this method a disk of pyrrhotite, *P*, Fig. 12, from 1 cm. to 2 cm. in diameter and about $\frac{1}{2}$ mm. thick, is placed between the poles of a magnet of field strength *H*, and the magnetic properties of the crystal are studied with the disk in various positions. The intensity of magnetization is not necessarily in the direction of *H*, in fact, it is in this direction only in one position of the disk, i.e., when the direction in which the disk is most easily magnetized coincides with the direction of *H*. In general, the intensity of magnetization makes an angle α with *H*.

14. *Component of Magnetization Perpendicular to the Field.*—Suppose the crystal is turned so that the elementary magnet, with center at *O*, Fig. 13, makes an angle α with the direction of the field, *H*.

Let *N*, be the moment of the couple acting on the elementary magnet. Then

$$N_s = 2lm H \sin \alpha \\ = \mu H \sin \alpha$$

where *2l* is the length of the magnet, *m* its pole strength and μ the magnetic moment of the elementary magnet.

I, the intensity of magnetization, is equal to $n\mu$, where *n* is the number of elementary magnets per unit volume. Therefore,

$$N = n\mu H \sin \alpha \\ = I H \sin \alpha$$

where *N* is the moment of the couple acting on the crystal.

Now, $I \sin \alpha$ equals the component of the intensity of magnetization perpendicular to *H*. Therefore

$$N = HI_{(\perp)} = C\alpha'$$

where *C* is the constant of the apparatus and α' is the deflection of the mirror. If the magnet is mounted in a horizontal plane so that it can be turned about a vertical axis, the perpendicular component of the intensity of magnetization can be studied for various relative positions of the magnet and crystal.

*Weiss, Jour. de Phys., ser. 4, Vol. 4, p. 469, 1905.

Weiss' results show that this is a periodic function which repeats itself every 180° . The curve shown in Fig. 14 represents the ideal curve obtained in this manner. In practice the curve is not smooth but has irregularities.

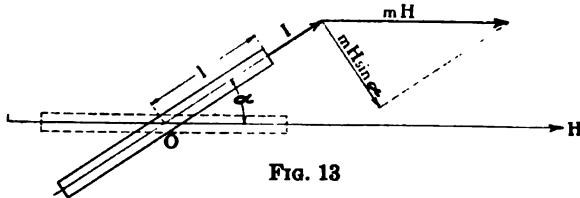


FIG. 13

15. *Component of Magnetization Parallel to the Field.*— If the disk is now placed between the poles of the magnet in a vertical position (see dotted line of Fig. 12) so that the plane of the disk makes an angle of 3° or 4° with the direction of the field H , and so that it can turn about a horizontal axis, it will be in a position to study the component of the intensity of magnetization which is parallel to the field.

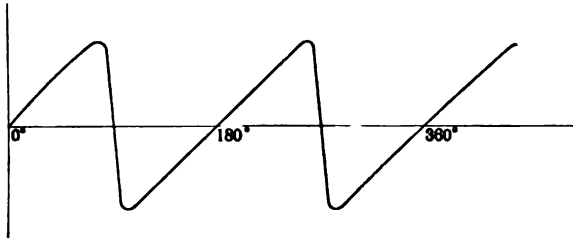


FIG. 14

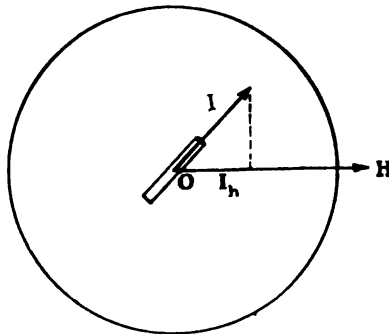


FIG. 15

Resolve the intensity of magnetization into a horizontal and a vertical component (see Fig. 15). Let I_h be the horizontal component. If the disk is placed so that I_h makes an angle of 3° or 4° with the direction of H , Fig. 16, there will be a restoring force tending to turn the disk back into a plane parallel to the field H . This can be measured in a manner similar to that shown in Fig. 12. The restoring force is

$$HI_h \sin \gamma = C\gamma'$$

where γ' is the deflection of the mirror. Therefore, if γ is kept constant the restoring force is proportional to I_h . Now $I_h \cos \gamma$, the component of I_h parallel to the field, is very nearly equal to I_h , since γ is only 3° or 4° . Hence, if we turn the disk through 180° , we obtain the components of the intensity of magnetization I_p , parallel to the field.

The component of the intensity of magnetization parallel to the field may also be studied by the method of induction by use of a solenoidal coil S , with a secondary S' inside. If the pyrrhotite disk d is thrust into the secondary with its plane parallel to the axis of the cylinder as shown in Fig. 17, there is a change of the flux through the secondary and hence a deflection of the ballistic galvanometer. The galvanometer will not be affected by the component of magnetization perpendicular to H , but only by that parallel to H . Therefore, by rotating the disk, one can study the relation between I_p and the angle of rotation of the disk. Weiss, by direct experiment, obtained results which are shown in Fig. 18, in which the abscissas are the azimuths of a constant magnetic field. The ordinates of the upper curve are the components of the magnetization parallel to the field, whereas those of the lower curve are the components perpendicular to the field. The phenomenon repeats itself every 180° .

In order to interpret these curves, Weiss makes use of the following illustration. Suppose a magnetic field is made to turn in the plane of an elliptic plate of soft iron. At the axes the magnetization coincides with the direction of the field. The longer axis will have a maximum, the shorter axis a minimum of magnetization. For all other directions of the field, the magnetization will be more nearly that of the longer axis than of the field. With the continuous rotation of the magnetic field, the magnetization will turn more slowly than the field in the neighborhood of the long axis and more rapidly in the neighborhood of the short axis. If the ellipse is very elongated, the component of magnetization perpendicular to the field will pass almost instantly from a very large negative value to a very large positive value, as represented in Fig. 14, while the direction of the field changes from one side to the other of the short axis. The lower curve of Fig. 18 may evidently be obtained by the addition of three curves, similar to that of Fig. 14, displaced with respect to each other by 60° and 120° .

From the above analogy, Weiss assumes that the complex structure of the crystal of pyrrhotite results from the juxtaposition of elementary crystals of which the magnetic planes are parallel and which possess each a direction of maximum and minimum magnetization at right angles to each other, and that these crystals are associated in the magnetic plane by the angles of 60° , or what amounts to the same thing, 120° .

The amplitudes of the abrupt variations of the component of magnetization perpendicular to the field give the relative importance of the three components of magnetization due to superposition of the crystals. The angles of the upper curve of Fig. 18 correspond to the minima of the magnetization parallel to the field of each of the components.

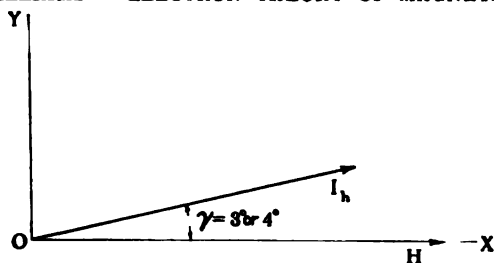


FIG. 16

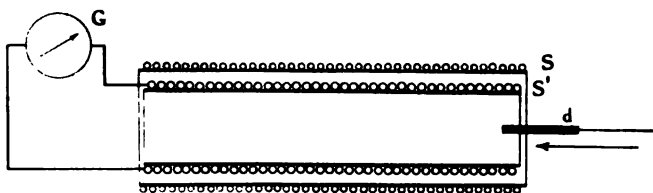


FIG. 17

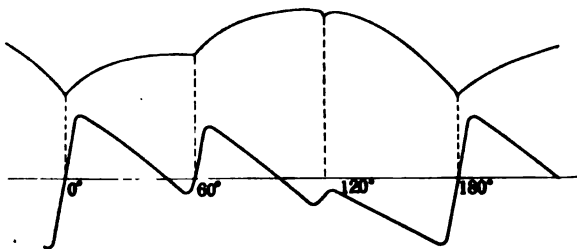


FIG. 18

16. *The Molecular Magnets of Pyrrhotite.*— In order to make a clear representation of the properties of a crystal of pyrrhotite, imagine that it be composed of rows of small needle magnets, equidistant from each other, pointing in the direction of easy magnetization Ox (Fig. 19), the axis Oy being the direction of difficult magnetization. Let the axis of rotation be perpendicular to the magnetic plane. Suppose that these magnets are small in comparison with the distances which separate them and strong enough to exercise on each other a directing action. Imagine moreover, that because of a compensation or of a greater distance, the rows do not affect one another. Left to themselves, the magnets of a row will adopt a position of equilibrium in which the north pole of each magnet will face the south pole of the following magnet. On this assumption, the substance would be saturated in the direction of easy magnetization Ox with little or no external field. Let a field H , making an angle α with the direction of the rows, act on the above system. The magnets will be deviated by an angle ϕ . As soon as the magnets are deviated from the direction Ox , there will be a force tending to restore

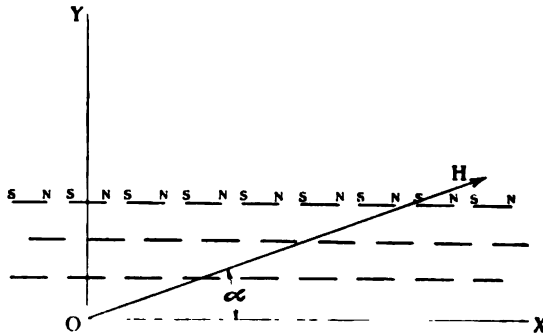


FIG. 19

them to their original position. If there were only two magnets, this force would take the direction indicated by the dotted line (1) Fig. 20, but the combined effect of all the magnets will give the force a direction (2), which is more nearly that of Ox . Let us assume that this force makes an angle ϕ with the direction Ox . The resultant action of the rows then exercises on each small magnet a magnetizing field $A\mu \cos \phi$ in the direction Ox , and in the direction Oy , a demagnetizing field $-B\mu \sin \phi$, where A and B are constants and where $\mu = ml$ is the magnetic moment of an elementary magnet. Let H_x and H_y be the sum of the components of the forces acting in the x and y directions respectively.

$$H_x = H \cos \alpha + A \mu \cos \phi \dots \dots \dots (30)$$

$$H_y = H \sin \alpha - B \mu \sin \phi \dots \dots \dots (31)$$

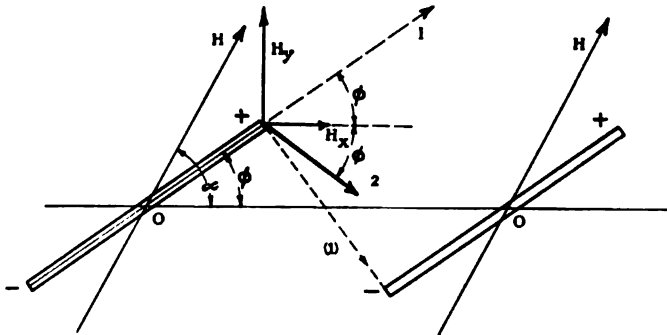


FIG. 20

For the condition of equilibrium

$$H_x \sin \phi = H_y \cos \phi$$

Therefore from (30) and (31)

$$(H \cos \alpha + A \mu \cos \phi) \sin \phi = (H \sin \alpha - B \mu \cos \phi) \cos \phi \dots (32)$$

or,

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = (A + B) \mu \sin \phi \cos \phi \dots \dots \dots (33)$$

Writing

$$(A + B) \mu = NI_m$$

where N is a constant and I_m the intensity of magnetization per unit volume,

$$H \sin(\alpha - \phi) = NI_m \sin \phi \cos \phi \dots \dots \dots (34)$$

Thus with the above assumptions we arrive at an expression which as will be shown later, is the expression for the law of magnetization of pyrrhotite determined experimentally.

17. *Weiss' Law of Magnetization of Pyrrhotite.*—(a) *Effect of Alternating Field.*—It has been shown that the elementary magnets of pyrrhotite lie in the plane of the base of the crystal. The direction x is called the direction of easy magnetization; the perpendicular direction y , that of the difficult magnetization. If H is in the direction of easy magnetization, saturation takes place from the beginning. If, in this case, the field is reversed in direction the hysteresis curve will run through a cycle which is rectangular in shape (see Fig. 21). When the field has acquired a certain value $\pm H_c$, the elementary magnets become unstable and suddenly all of them swing around into the other position of equilibrium. Experiment gives very nearly a rectangle.

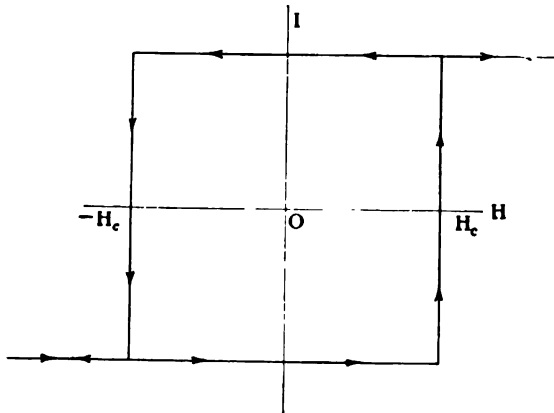


FIG. 21

(b) *Effect of Rotating Field.*—If a constant field is applied and rotated in the magnetic plane interesting phenomena present themselves. The elementary magnets have a tendency to remain in their original position so that when the field is rotated the direction of the intensity of magnetization turns slower than the field. If a field of 5,000 units acts in the direction Ox Fig. 22, and then rotates toward the direction Oy , the direction of the intensity of magnetization turns round much more slowly, and when H is in the direction Oy , I the intensity of magnetization, will be in the direction OI . Then when the field rotates a little farther, the magnets swing around very quickly so that, in the neighborhood of Oy , the rate of change of the direction of the intensity of magnetization is much greater than that of the field. Whatever the intensity of the field, the vector representing the intensity of mag-

netization falls within a circle C whose radius is equal to I_m , the maximum intensity of magnetization, which is the value obtained when the direction of the field coincides with the direction of easy magnetization. This circle is called the circle of saturation.

When the field is relatively weak, say 1,000 units, the intensity of magnetization vector follows the circle of saturation for only a short distance after which it describes a chord parallel to Ox . When the field has a strength of 7,300 units, or more, we have saturation in every direction of the field and the intensity of magnetization vector follows more closely the circle of saturation \bar{C} .

Thus in order to turn and maintain the magnets in the direction of difficult magnetization Oy , it is necessary to apply in this direction a field of at least 7,300 units.

While for saturation in the direction Ox little or no field is required, the field necessary to produce saturation in the direction Oy must have a rather high value. Furthermore the intensity of magnetization remains constantly in the plane Oxy , the component of magnetization in the direction Oz perpendicular to this plane being very small in comparison with the magnetization in the characteristic plane. Thus while the demagnetizing field in the direction Oy is 7,300 units, that in the direction Oz is 150,000 units, or about 20 times greater.

Let α and ϕ be the angles which H and I make with Ox (Fig. 23): resolve H into components H_a directed along Oy and H_l parallel to the intensity of magnetization. There is a constant ratio

$$\frac{H_a}{I \sin \phi} = N \dots \dots \dots (35)$$

between the components H_a of the field and the components of magnetization in the direction Oy . This fact was established experimentally by Weiss, a straight line relation between H_a and $I \sin \phi$ being obtained. The value of the constant N , for the sample that he used, was found to be

$$\frac{H_a}{I \sin \phi} = \frac{7300}{47} = 155.3$$

Everything takes place as if there were acting in the direction Oy , a demagnetizing force due to the structure of the crystal, proportional to the component of the intensity of magnetization in the direction of difficult magnetization Oy , and as if the remaining component of H were parallel to the direction of easy magnetization Ox .

From Fig. 23 we see that

$$H_a = AH = \frac{BH}{\cos \phi} = \frac{H \sin (\alpha - \phi)}{\cos \phi} \dots \dots \dots (36)$$

Substituting (36) in (35) gives,

$$\frac{\frac{H \sin (\alpha - \phi)}{\cos \phi}}{I \sin \phi} = N$$

or

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = NI \sin \phi \cos \phi \dots \dots \dots (37)$$

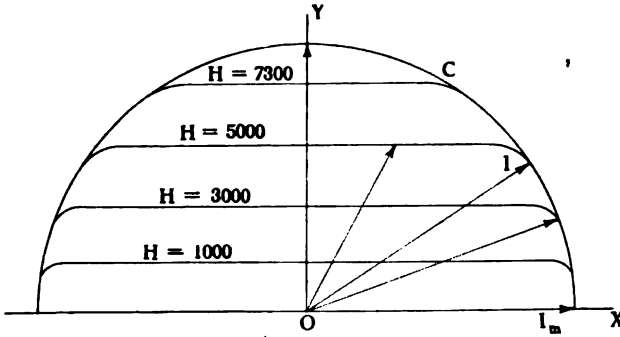


FIG. 22

This is the equation stating the law of magnetization of pyrrhotite, and is the same as that obtained when considering an elliptic plate of soft iron in a rotating field (Equation 34).

If, starting from the direction Ox , a field of 7,300 units or less has been rotated to the position Oy , the expression for the law of magnetization

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = NI \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

becomes

$$H \cos \phi = NI \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

since in this position $\alpha = 90^\circ$.

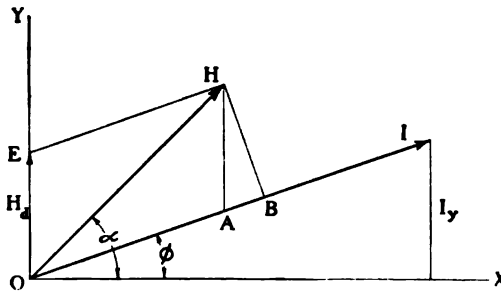


FIG. 23

For saturation this equation becomes

$$H \cos \phi = NI_m \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

therefore

$$\sin \phi = \frac{H}{NI_m}$$

For the same field there is a second position of equilibrium ϕ' , Fig. 24, symmetrical to the first with respect to Oy . One might imagine that a coercive force H_c directed along $-Ox$ causes the various rows of the elementary magnets to turn from the first into the second position of equilibrium. This coercive force, in the case of pyrrhotite, is about 15 units whereas the demagnetizing field, or the field necessary to make the elementary magnets stand at right angles to the direction of easy magnetization, is about 7,300 units. The relation between the two quantities has not yet been explained, but it has been suggested that it has to do with the disturbed region of the extremity of the rows.

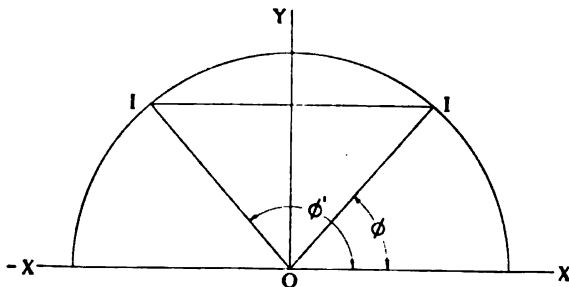


FIG. 24

18. *Magnetization in Different Directions.*—Let us now consider the laws of magnetization in directions other than that of Ox and Oy . As stated above, when a magnetizing field is applied in the direction of easy magnetization, saturation takes place from the beginning. If we plot intensity of magnetization I against field strength H , we will obtain the straight line AB (Fig. 25), parallel to the axis OH ; that is, the intensity of magnetization remains the same whatever the value of the magnetizing field. Saturation occurs even without any external field.

Now if we apply a magnetizing force in the direction Oy , we obtain, from the general law of magnetization of pyrrhotite

$$H \cos \phi = NI \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} H &= NI \sin \phi \\ &= NI_v \end{aligned}$$

whence

$$\frac{H}{I_v} = N = \text{constant}$$

This holds for fields below that necessary to produce saturation and is represented by the line OC Fig. 25. For fields equal to or greater than that necessary to produce saturation the curve is the same as for easy magnetization. Therefore the whole curve for the intensity of magnetization when the field is applied in the direction Oy is given by OCB Fig. 25.

We have now to inquire what happens when the direction of the magnetizing field is intermediate between the direction Ox and Oy . We get different expressions for the law of magnetization depending on the way in which I is resolved. For a field of constant direction we may

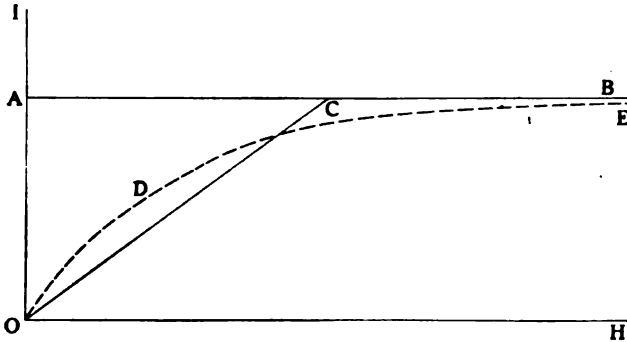


FIG. 25

take the component of the intensity of magnetization in the direction of the field. In this case (from Fig. 26)

$$I_h = I \cos (\alpha - \phi) \dots \dots \dots (38)$$

In general

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = NI \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

For saturation this equation becomes

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = NI_m \sin \phi \cos \phi \dots \dots \dots (39)$$

and (38) becomes

$$I_h = I_m \cos (\alpha - \phi) \dots \dots \dots (40)$$

Eliminating ϕ between (39) and (40) we find

$$H = \frac{N}{2} \sin 2\alpha \sqrt{\frac{I_h}{I_m - I_h}} - NI_h \cos 2\alpha - \frac{N}{2} \sin 2\alpha \sqrt{I_m^2 - I_h^2}$$

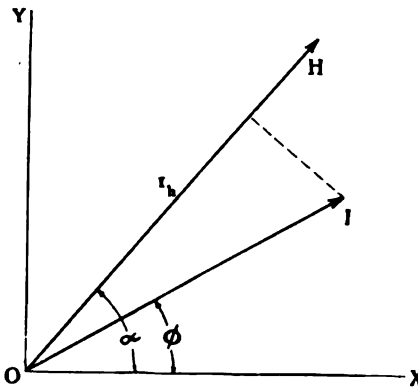


FIG. 26

If I_h approaches I_m , the first term of the right side of the equation approaches ∞ ; in other words, if H becomes ∞ , I_h approaches I_m . Therefore the curve between the intensity of magnetization I_h , and the magnetizing force H approaches the line of saturation AB Fig. 25 asymptotically, and the law of magnetization for directions intermediate

between Ox and Oy is given by the curve ODE Fig. 25. It is possible to explain all the ordinary curves of magnetization by a superposition of properties analogous to those of pyrrhotite in the direction of easy, difficult, and intermediate magnetization.

As has already been shown, the relation

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = NI \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

deduced from the triangle OHE (Fig. 23), is the analytic expression of the law of magnetization. This expression multiplied by I gives the couple, or mechanical moment, exerted by the field on the substance.

$$\begin{aligned} M &= HI \sin (\alpha - \phi) = NI^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi \\ &= \frac{2NI^2}{2} \sin \phi \cos \phi \\ &= \frac{NI^2}{2} \sin 2\phi \dots\dots\dots (41) \end{aligned}$$

This couple is a maximum when

$$\begin{aligned} I &= I_m \\ \phi &= 45^\circ \end{aligned}$$

If we measure M as a function of α , the angle of orientation of the field with respect to the substance, we shall find a couple which becomes constant as soon as the field is strong enough to bring about saturation of the intensity of magnetization after this vector I has described an arc of 45° or more along the circle of saturation. This has been very clearly demonstrated by Weiss* in which he obtains the following curves (Fig. 27) experimentally. In these curves the angles of rotation of the field with respect to the substance are used as abscissas, and the couples, expressed in mm. divisions of the scale are used as ordinates. It will be noticed that the maxima for curves III, IV, and V are approximately the same, notwithstanding the fact that the magnetizing fields in the three cases are widely different. In order to reduce these couples to their absolute values per unit of volume it is necessary to multiply by 950.

From equation (41), the value of the maximum couple is $\frac{NI_m^2}{2}$.

Taking $I_m = 47$, one obtains from the mean of the three values of this couple a demagnetizing field,

$$H_d = NI_m = 7300$$

which agrees with experimental determination.

19. *Hysteresis Phenomena.*—(a) *Alternating Hysteresis.*—We have seen that when a field $H = H_c = 15$ gauss is applied parallel to the direction of easy magnetization of pyrrhotite the elementary magnets turn completely over, yet it takes 7,300 gauss to make them stand at right angles to this direction.

Weiss has shown that, if one considers the direction of easy magnetization in a substance that is infinite and without fractures, the intensity of magnetization would remain constant as the magnetizing field increases and, if the magnetizing force were to describe a cycle, the theoretical hysteresis loop would be a rectangle as indicated by the

* Weiss, Jour. de Phys., ser. 4, Vol. 4, p. 469, 1905.

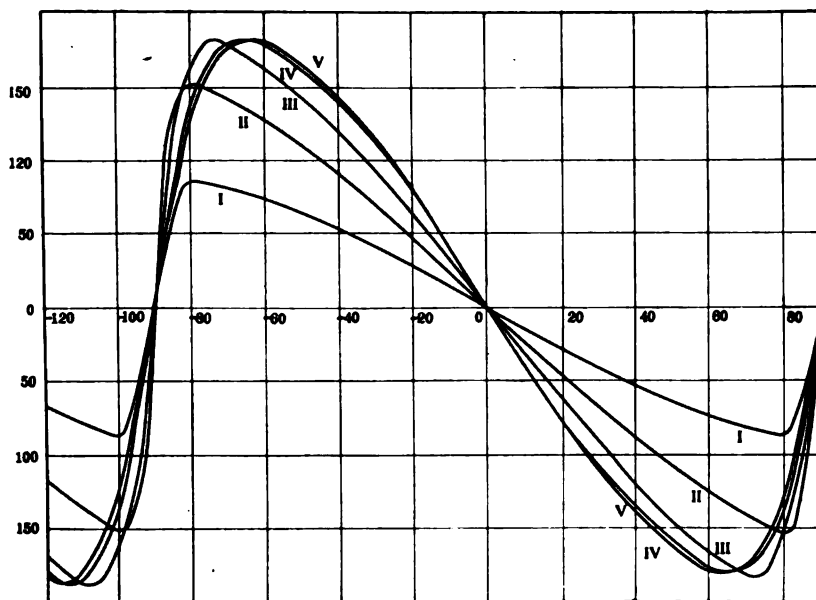


FIG. 27

Curve I. $H = 1992$ gauss
 Curve II. $H = 4000$ gauss
 Curve III. $H = 7310$ gauss
 Curve IV. $H = 10275$ gauss
 Curve V. $H = 11140$ gauss

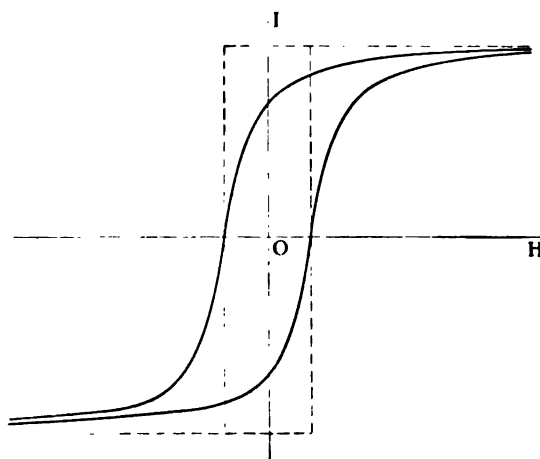


FIG. 28

dotted line in Fig. 28. The more uniform the magnetic material is, the less the experimental curve deviates from the theoretical curve. Weiss found that the distance between the ascending and descending branches of the experimental curve, measured parallel to the axis of abscissas, is approximately constant and equal to 30.8 gauss. Thus in order to move the vector of magnetization along the diameter of easy magnetization it is necessary to overcome a constant coercive field

$$H_c = 15.4 \text{ gauss.}$$

The energy dissipated per cycle in the form of heat in a unit of volume is

$$\begin{aligned} E_a &= 4H_c I_m = 4 \times 15.4 \times 47 \\ &= 2900 \text{ ergs.} \end{aligned}$$

(b) Rotating Hysteresis.—Excluding the direction of easy magnetization, the knowledge of magnetization in the magnetic plane has been obtained by causing a field of constant magnitude to turn in this plane. From these experiments one can obtain information on the form of hysteresis that has been called rotating hysteresis as distinguished from alternating hysteresis which has been considered above. If we rotate the field from the direction of easy magnetization OX (Fig. 29) through the angle XOY , the vector of the intensity of magnetization describes the arc AB of the circle of saturation. Then, the field passing the direction of difficult magnetization OY , the vector of the intensity of magnetization describes quickly the chord BFD , after which it describes the arc DE as the field describes the angle $YO (-X)$.

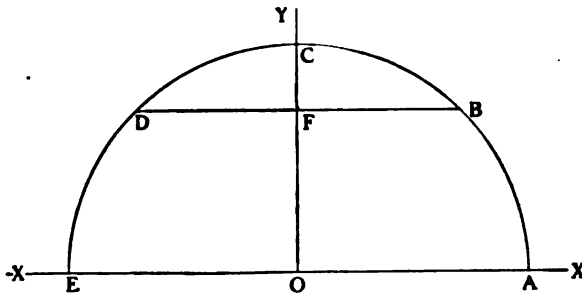


FIG. 29

Hysteresis occurs only in the direction of difficult magnetization OY when the molecules swing from one position of equilibrium into the other. In other words hysteresis accompanies the change of intensity of magnetization as the vector moves along BFD . When the magnetizing field H reaches the value 7,300 gauss the intensity of magnetization I follows the circle of saturation and the rotating hysteresis disappears. It follows from this that the hysteresis area along the circle of saturation is equal to zero. In the curves of Fig. 30, taken from experimental results obtained by Weiss with a sample of pyrrhotite in a field of about 600 gauss, 0 represents the region in the direction of easy magnetization and 90° that in the direction of difficult magnetization. It is seen that the two curves coincide exactly for some distance

in the neighborhood of easy magnetization. In the neighborhood of the direction OY , marked by a , the two curves are distinctly different. The smaller the field with which one works the greater the divergence, but whatever be the field the curve corresponding to rotation in one direction can be superimposed on the return curve by a horizontal displacement.

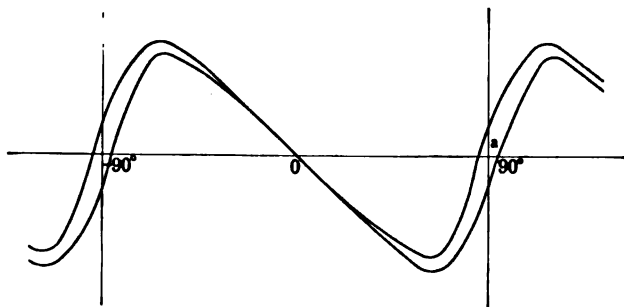


FIG. 30

20. *Energy of Rotating Hysteresis.*—So long as the intensity of magnetization I follows the curve of saturation there is no hysteresis loss. The loss takes place along SBS' Fig. 31. The force necessary to turn the elementary magnet over at S is less than at A . Call this force H'_o . Experiment has shown that

$$\frac{H_o}{I_m} = \frac{H'_o}{I_m - I_y} = \text{Const.}$$

therefore

$$H'_o = C(I_m - I_y).$$

To obtain the value of C let

$$I_y = 0$$

then

$$H'_o = CI_m = H_o$$

or

$$C = \frac{H_o}{I_m}.$$

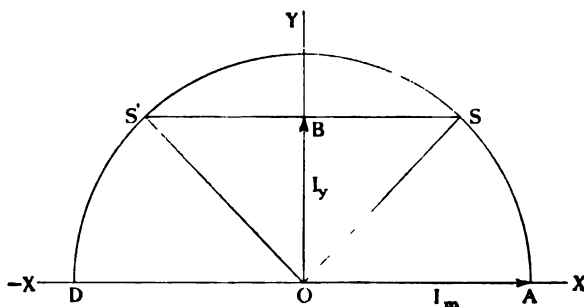


FIG. 31

Therefore the coercive force

$$H'_c = \frac{H_c}{I_m} (I_m - I_v).$$

If

$$\begin{aligned} I_v &= I_m \\ H'_c &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

and there is no hysteresis loss.

Now the energy dissipated in an alternating hysteresis, that is a hysteresis along AD (Fig. 31), was found above to be equal to $4 I_m H_c$. The rotating hysteresis loss along SS' is $4 H'_c BS$.

Now

$$(BS)^2 = I_m^2 - I_v^2 = I_m^2 \left(1 - \frac{I_v^2}{I_m^2}\right)$$

whence

$$BS = I_m \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{I_v}{I_m}\right)^2}$$

Therefore the energy dissipated in one rotating hysteresis cycle is

$$\begin{aligned} E_r &= 4 H'_c BS \\ &= 4 H'_c I_m \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{I_v}{I_m}\right)^2} \\ &= 4 \frac{H_c}{I_m} (I_m - I_v) I_m \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{I_v}{I_m}\right)^2} \\ &= 4 H_c I_m \left(1 - \frac{I_v}{I_m}\right) \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{I_v}{I_m}\right)^2} \dots \dots \dots (42) \end{aligned}$$

If

$$I_v = 0$$

this reduces to the value for alternating hysteresis. Since the demagnetizing force, if the substance is infinite and continuous, is

$$\begin{aligned} H_d &= N I_v \\ I_v &= \frac{H_d}{N} \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this in equation (42) we have

$$E_r = 4 H_c I_m \left(1 - \frac{H_d}{N I_m}\right) \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{H_d}{N I_m}\right)^2}$$

The energy E_a , dissipated in alternating hysteresis remains constant, whereas that of rotating hysteresis decreases with increase of I_v . This is shown graphically in Fig. 32 by the full line curve AB . The points (marked +) in the neighborhood of this curve are the results of measurements made by Weiss with a hysteresis-meter. They are subject to the correction $-n I_v$, since in a finite sample as was used in the experiment

$$H_d = (N + n) I_v$$

instead of

$$H_d = NI_v$$

where

$$n = \frac{H_l}{I}$$

in which H_l is the component of magnetization parallel to I .

21. *Magnetic Properties of Hematite.*—The magnetic properties of the crystal hematite are similar in many ways to those of the crystal pyrrhotite except that they are less pronounced. As in pyrrhotite, the elementary magnets of hematite lie in the plane of the base and it is paramagnetic perpendicular to this plane.

The crystal hematite has been studied by J. Kunz* and others. Kunz studied two distinct groups of crystals. The first group consisted of crystalline disks parallel to the base of the crystal. These crystals show a regular magnetic behavior and possess very small values of alternating and rotating hysteresis. The second group consisted of crystals composed of elementary magnets inclined toward each other at an angle of 60° . They possess so large an hysteresis effect that in many instances this overshadows the intensity of magnetization.

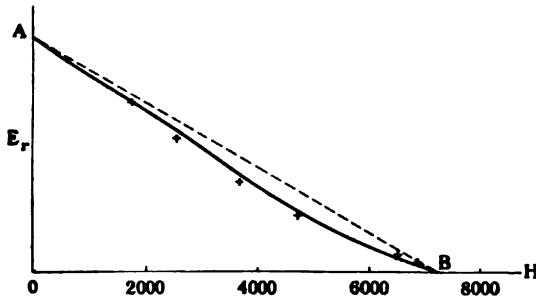


FIG. 32

It was found that the first group was not affected by temperature; that is while the intensity of magnetization decreased with increase of temperature, becoming zero at 645° , yet when the temperature was again decreased the intensity of magnetization returned to its original values. This is not the case with crystals of the second group, for after the crystal has been heated to 650° its intensity of magnetization does not return to its original value on its return to lower temperatures.

The maximum value of the intensity of magnetization in the direction of easy magnetization is reached much more quickly in the case of pyrrhotite than in the case of hematite. In the case of alternating and rotating hysteresis, the effect is very much the same in the two crystals.

*J. Kunz, Archives des Sciences, Vol. XXIII, 1907.

22. Magnetic Properties of Magnetite.— Besides the ferromagnetic crystals pyrrhotite and hematite there is a third, magnetite, whose magnetic properties are similar in many ways to those of the other two. It is classified as belonging to the regular system of crystals, but its magnetic properties indicate that it does not belong to this system. The magnetic properties of magnetite have been studied by Curie,* Weiss,† Quittner‡ and others, who found that they were more pronounced than those of hematite but less pronounced than those of pyrrhotite. From about 535° C. the temperature of magnetite transformation to 1375° C. the temperature of fusion of magnetite Curie found that the intensity of magnetization is independent of the field and that it decreases very regularly with the increase of temperature. For a part of this temperature range Curie formulated the following law: "The coefficient of magnetization of magnetite varies inversely as the absolute temperature between 850° C. and 1360° C."

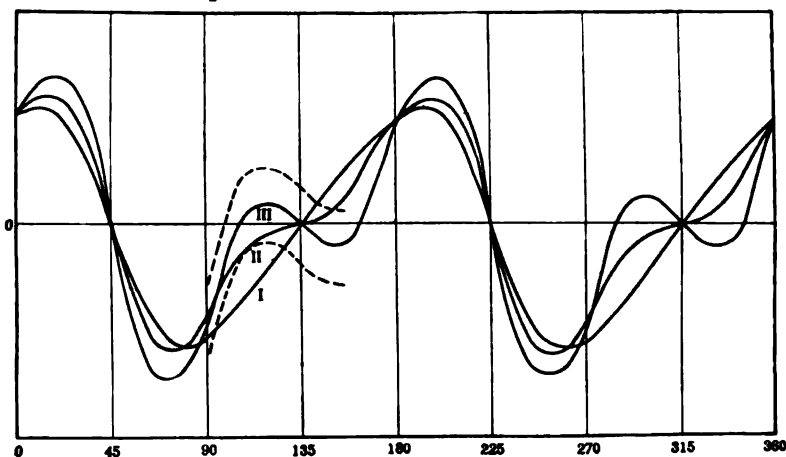


FIG. 33

Weiss and Quittner found that the magnetic properties indicate that the crystals of magnetite do not belong to the regular system. This was shown by taking a plate of magnetite cut parallel to the surface of the cube and placing it in the magnetic field in a horizontal position and then rotating the magnetic field round about it. Plotting their results with the angles of rotation of the magnetic field as abscissas, and as ordinates the deflection of the suspension which is proportional to the intensity of magnetization in a direction perpendicular to the magnetic field, they obtained the curves of Fig. 33. Each of these curves is the mean of the two curves obtained by rotating the field from 0° to 360° and then back to 0°. A portion of the two curves from which curve III is obtained is represented by the dotted lines. The area between the two curves is the hysteresis area of rotation.

* P. Curie, *Ann. de Chem.*, ser. 7, Vol. 5, p. 391, 1895.

† P. Weiss, *Archives des Sciences*, Vol. XXXI, 1911.

‡ V. Quittner, *Archives des Science*, Vol. XXVI, 1908.

If the symmetry were that of the cubic system the curve should show a period of 90° , thus forming between 0° and 360° four similar waves. Instead of this the figure shows only two identical waves between 0° and 360° for $H=57.3$ gauss. The symmetry is therefore not that of the cubic system. Now the geometrical properties of the crystal leucite are such that it is usually classed as an isomeric crystal, yet when it is investigated optically it is found to be isotropic. However, as the temperature is raised, the optical properties also become those of the regular system. It would be interesting to see whether the properties of symmetry of magnetite, from the magnetic point of view, change with change of temperature. If according to its magnetic properties magnetite does not belong to the regular system, the question arises, to which system does it belong from a magnetic point of view?

The curves of Fig. 33 show that the two principal axes situated in the plane of the cubic plate are not equivalent. It remains to be determined whether the third axis, perpendicular to the plane of the plate, is equivalent to either of the other two or whether it behaves differently from the magnetic point of view. In the first case, we would have the symmetry of the quadric system, in the second, that of the orthorhombic system. Thus if the system is cubic, there should be between 0° and 180° three identical waves; if it is quadratic there should be two similar waves and a third which is different; and finally, for the symmetry of the orthorhombic system, the three waves should be different, with the possibility that one or even two of these waves may disappear completely. Quittner in his researches found the three waves to be different and that their relative magnitudes depend on the magnitude of the magnetic field. We must conclude therefore, that magnetite, so far as its magnetic properties are concerned, possesses the symmetry of the orthorhombic system.

In order to see the irregularities in the magnetic behavior of a crystal of magnetite and the dependence of the magnetic properties on the value of the magnetizing field, we need only to observe the curves, Fig. 34, obtained by Quittner with a plate cut from a crystal in such a way that its plane makes equal angles with the three axes. It will be noticed that for a field $H=167.2$ gauss all three waves are practically equal; for a field $H=368.1$ gauss there are only two waves which are greatly reduced and displaced, the third being barely visible. If the field is still increased one again finds, for $H=757$ gauss, three well-defined waves which, however, are displaced by half a wave length.

The theoretical interpretation of these very complicated phenomena is hardly possible in the present state of our knowledge, but the investigators of magnetite have proposed that the crystal is made up of equal parts of three elementary magnets whose magnetic planes are perpendicular to each other, such as would be the case if it were possible to superimpose three plates of pyrrhotite cut parallel to the plane of easy magnetization in such a manner that their planes would be mutually perpendicular to each other.

III. EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE UPON THE MAGNETIC PROPERTIES OF BODIES

23. *Method of Investigation Used by Curie.*—Extensive investigations of the effect of temperature upon the magnetic properties of various substances have been made by Hopkinson,* Curie,† and others. Curie's method was to place the body to be tested in a non-uniform magnetic field and measure the resultant force of the magnetic actions by utilizing the torsion of a wire. Let $ABCD$ (Fig. 35) represent the horizontal arms of an electromagnet, and let the axes of these two arms form an angle with each other. The body to be investigated is placed at the point O on the line Ox , which is the intersection of the horizontal plane passing through the axis of the arms of the electromagnet and the vertical plane of symmetry. When the electromagnet is excited, a force f of attraction or repulsion acts along Ox . Call H_x the intensity of the magnetic field at O . This field is directed, by reason of symmetry, along Oy perpendicular to Ox . Let I be the specific intensity of magnetization, that is the intensity of magnetization per unit mass, and m the mass of the body, then

$$f = mI \frac{dH_x}{dx}$$

If diamagnetic or paramagnetic bodies are being studied the demagnetizing force arising from the magnetization of the body is insignificant, and if K is used to designate the coefficient of specific magnetization, there is obtained

$$I = KH_x$$

and

$$f = mKH_x \frac{dH_x}{dx}$$

Now K for most diamagnetic and paramagnetic bodies is practically constant and therefore f is proportional to $H_x \frac{dH_x}{dx}$. For greatest sensitiveness the body should be placed at the point on Ox at which this product is maximum. Curie's method was to surround the sample under investigation by a vertical electric furnace so that it could be heated to any desired temperature. The sample itself was mounted on the end of a lever lm , which was suspended by a torsion wire tm . This lever was connected to another lever mn so that any movement of the sample would be greatly magnified at the other end of the system. The whole movable system was suspended in such a manner that any movement of the body, which was very small in the substances investigated by Curie, would be along Ox . With his apparatus, Curie claimed to be able to measure movements of the object to 0.001 mm. As the body was heated to various temperatures, which could be determined by means of a thermocouple, the forces of attraction or repulsion could be determined from the movement of the levers and the constant of the apparatus.

* Hopkinson, Phil. Trans., p. 443, 1889.

† P. Curie, Ann. de Chem., ser. 7, Vol. 5, p. 289, 1895.

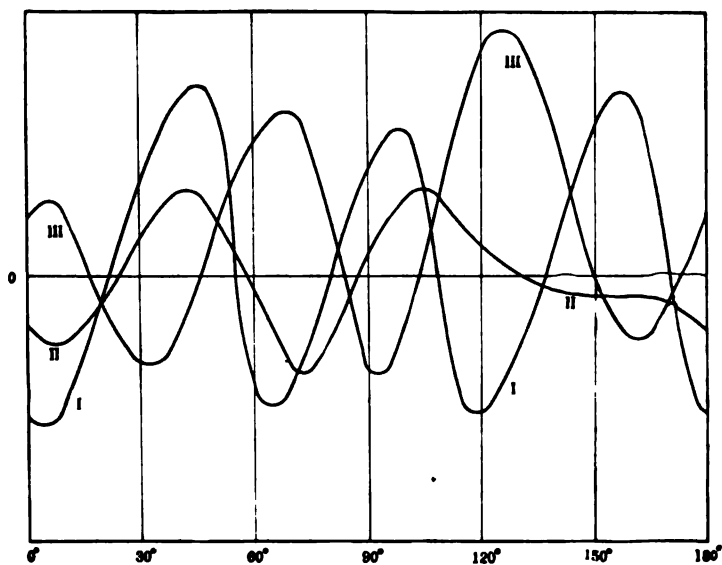


FIG. 34

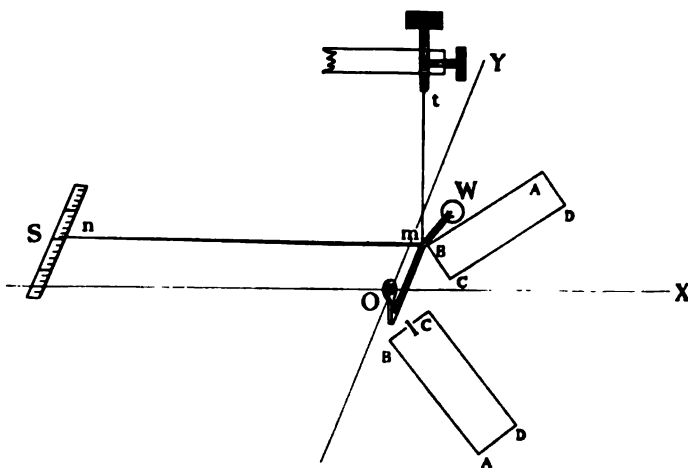


FIG. 35

24. *Results Obtained by Curie.*—After a very extended study, covering a wide range of substances—diamagnetic, paramagnetic, and ferromagnetic—Curie came to the following conclusions:

The coefficient of specific magnetization of diamagnetic bodies is independent of the intensity of the field, and as a general rule independent of the temperature. Antimony and bismuth are exceptions to this rule. The coefficient of magnetization of these bodies diminishes with increase of temperature. For bismuth the law of variation is a linear one. The physical and chemical changes of state often have only a slight effect on the diamagnetic properties. This is true in the case of the fusion of white phosphorus at 44° , and in the various transformations which are undergone when sulphur is heated. However, this is not always the case; the coefficient of magnetization of white phosphorus experiences a considerable diminution when this body is transformed into red phosphorus, antimony deposited by electrolysis in the allotropic state is much less diamagnetic than the ordinary variety, and the coefficient of magnetization of bismuth becomes, by fusion, twenty-five times more weak.

Paramagnetic bodies have also a coefficient of magnetization independent of the intensity of the field, but these bodies behave quite differently from the point of view of the changes produced by the change of temperature. The coefficient of specific magnetization varies simply in inverse ratio to the absolute temperature.

The difference in the effect of temperature on the coefficient of magnetization of magnetic and diamagnetic bodies is very marked, which is in favor of the theories which attribute magnetism and diamagnetism to causes of a different nature.

The properties of ferromagnetic and paramagnetic bodies are, on the contrary, intimately related. When a ferromagnetic body is heated it is transformed gradually and takes the properties of a paramagnetic body. The curve of Fig. 36 represents graphically the relation between temperature and intensity of magnetization I for a sample of iron subject to a magnetizing field of 1,300 units. In the region β , which commences at 760°C and extends to 920°C , the coefficient of specific magnetization obeys exactly an hyperbolic law up to 820° , after which it decreases more rapidly. Between 820° and 920° , at which point the γ state begins, it is probable that a gradual transformation takes place. In the γ state the iron possesses a susceptibility inversely proportional to the absolute temperature, which is characteristic of paramagnetic bodies. At 1280° where the last change of state takes place the coefficient of specific magnetization increases rapidly in the ratio of 2 to 3, after which it seems to take a variation in reverse ratio to the absolute temperature.

25. *Results of du Bois and Honda.*—H. du Bois and K. Honda* extended the investigations of Curie to a large number of elements

* H. du Bois and K. Honda, Konink. Akad. Wetensch., Amsterdam, Proc. 12, pp. 596-602, 1909-1910.

(43 in all) and decided that Curie's conclusions do not admit of such extensive generalizations as have been given to them. They found that of the twenty or more diamagnetic elements examined there are only six which do not vary within the whole temperature range, and that during a change of physical state a discontinuity in the intensity of magnetization frequently occurs. This change may consist of a large or small break in the curve showing the relation between intensity of magnetization and temperature or of a rather sudden change in the shape of the curve.

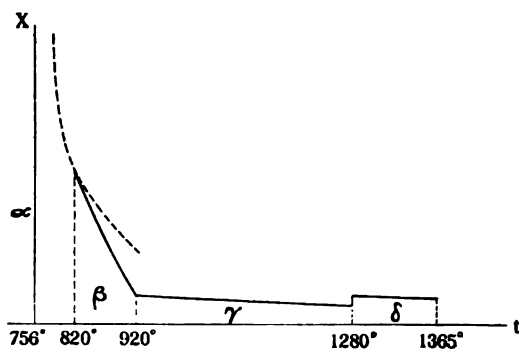


FIG. 36

Of the thermomagnetic examinations of polymorphous transformations made by du Bois and Honda, the most remarkable properties are shown by tin. They found that if diamagnetic grey tin is slowly heated, at 32° the intensity of magnetization, which is negative, suddenly changes (like the density) and at 35° passes through zero. Further heating continuously increases the magnetization until the value for paramagnetic tetragonal tin is reached at about 50°, after which it remains practically constant.

26. *Analogy Between the Manner in Which the Intensity of Magnetization of a Magnetic Body Increases under the Influence of Temperature and the Intensity of the Field, and the Manner in Which the Density of a Fluid Increases under the Influence of Temperature and Pressure.*— There are many analogies between the function $f(I, H, T) = 0$ as applied to a magnetic body and the function $f(D, p, T) = 0$ as applied to a fluid. The intensity of magnetization I corresponds to the density D , the intensity of the field H corresponds to the pressure p , and the absolute temperature T plays the same rôle in the two cases. For a paramagnetic body or a ferromagnetic body at a temperature above that of the transformation point, the relation is found

$$I = A \frac{H}{T}$$

where A is a constant. Similarly for a fluid sufficiently removed from its temperature of liquefaction one has the relation

$$D = \frac{I}{R} \times \frac{p}{T}$$

where $\frac{I}{R}$ is a constant. The law of the constancy of the intensity of magnetization when the field varies, and the inverse law of the absolute temperature for the coefficient of magnetization correspond respectively to the laws of Boyle and of Charles.

The manner in which the intensity of magnetization as a function of the temperature varies in the neighborhood of the temperature of transformation, the field remaining constant, corresponds to the manner in which the density of the fluid as a function of the temperature varies in the neighborhood of the critical temperature, the pressure remaining constant. The analogy between $I = \phi(T)$ and $D = \phi(T)$ corresponding to pressures above the critical pressures is shown graphically in Figs. 37 and 38. Although as Curie has shown the analogy seems to be almost perfect when the field strength in the one case and pressure in the other is kept constant, yet it has not been shown to hold in the case where temperature is kept constant in both phenomena.

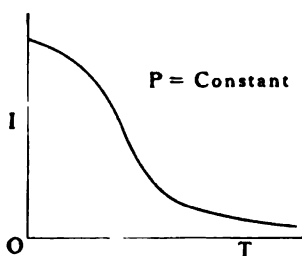


FIG. 37

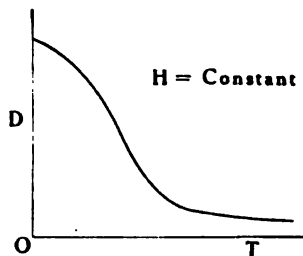


FIG. 38

In the case of magnetization if the temperature is kept constant and the field strength alternated a hysteresis loop is obtained when intensity of magnetization I is plotted against field strength H . That this is true in the case of a fluid when the temperature is kept constant and the relation between density and pressure plotted has not been shown. It is true that in the case of solids the phenomena of lag occurs with variation of density and pressure at constant temperature, and it may be true to a small degree in the case of liquids, but it is hard to conceive of it as being true in the case of gases.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL EVIDENCE IN FAVOR OF THE ELECTRON THEORY OF MAGNETISM

27. The Molecular Magnetic Field of Pyrrhotite. — Let us assume that we have two fields, H and H_m , acting in a crystalline substance and that the crystalline structure possesses three rectangular planes of symmetry coincident with the planes of the system of coördinates, and that each component of the molecular field is proportional to the corresponding component of the intensity of magnetization with a coefficient

$N_1 > N_2 > N_3$ for each axis. Then the molecular field H_m has, in general, not the direction of the intensity of magnetization except when the latter is directed along one of the axes. Thus the intensity of magnetization assumes of itself the direction of one of the axes, Ox , Oy , or Oz , Fig. 39, and this orientation will correspond to a stable equilibrium only for the axis Ox for which the coefficient N_1 is the greatest.

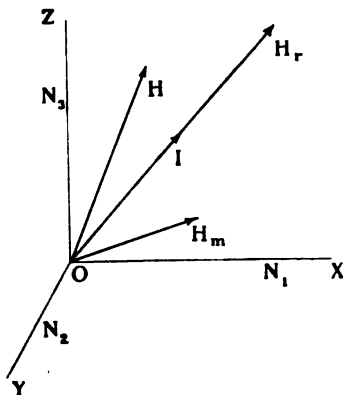


FIG. 39

If an external field H is added to the molecular field the magnetization assumes the direction of the resultant magnetic field. Now

$$H_x + H_{mx} = H_x + N_1 I_x,$$

$$H_y + H_{my} = H_y + N_2 I_y,$$

$$H_z + H_{mz} = H_z + N_3 I_z.$$

If the resultant H_r coincides with I in one direction,

$$\frac{H_x + N_1 I_x}{I_x} = \frac{H_y + N_2 I_y}{I_y} = \frac{H_z + N_3 I_z}{I_z}.$$

and if the magnetization takes place in a plane, say the xy plane,

$$\frac{H_x + N_1 I_x}{I_x} = \frac{H_y + N_2 I_y}{I_y}.$$

Let α and ϕ , Fig. 40, be the angles which H and I make with the axis Ox .

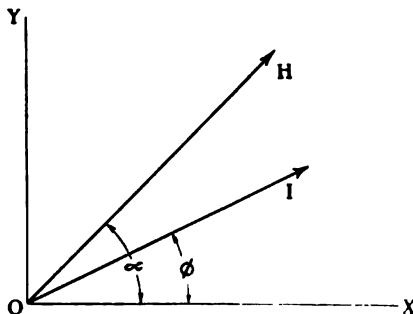


FIG. 40

Then

$$\frac{H \cos \alpha + N_1 I \cos \phi}{I \cos \phi} = \frac{H \sin \alpha + N_2 I \sin \phi}{I \sin \phi}$$

whence

$$IH \cos \alpha \sin \phi + N_1 I^2 \cos \phi \sin \phi = IH \sin \alpha \cos \phi + N_2 I^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

Transposing and simplifying,

$$IH \sin (\alpha - \phi) - (N_1 - N_2) I^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi = 0$$

or

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = (N_1 - N_2) I \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

Put

$$N_1 - N_2 = N$$

and

$$H \sin (\alpha - \phi) = NI \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

This equation expresses the law of magnetization of pyrrhotite, (see equation (37), page 9) as determined experimentally by Weiss. Therefore the above hypothesis accounts for the experimental properties of pyrrhotite in the xy plane. These properties are different from those in the xz plane only in the magnitude of the constant.

The equation

$$HI \sin (\alpha - \phi) = (N_1 - N_2) I^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi$$

states that the couple $HI \sin (\alpha - \phi)$ exerted by the external field on the intensity of magnetization is equal to the couple $(N_1 - N_2) I^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi$, which is due to the structure of the crystal and which would remain if the external field were suppressed. The latter couple tends to bring the elementary magnets back into the direction of easy magnetization. The position of equilibrium corresponding to the orientation of the magnets in the direction Ox is stable only when $N_1 > N_2 > N_3$.

28. *Variation of the Intensity of Magnetization of Magnetite with Temperature.*— It has been shown, page 21, that

$$\frac{I}{I_m} = \frac{\cosh a}{\sinh a} - \frac{1}{a} \dots \dots \dots (28)$$

where

$$a = \frac{MH}{RT} \dots \dots \dots (43)$$

In the case of ferromagnetic substances we have, in addition to the external field, an anterior or molecular field H_m which is due to the action of the molecules upon each other and which has been called by Weiss the "intrinsic molecular field." Just as liquids can exist when the external pressure is zero, so ferromagnetic bodies can take a finite intensity of magnetization in the absence of exterior fields. If the interior field acted alone the intensity of magnetization would be proportional to it and we would have

$$H_m = NI$$

and equation (43) would become

$$a = \frac{NMI}{RT}$$

or

$$I = \frac{aRT}{MN} \dots \dots \dots (44)$$

where N is the factor of proportionality.

This equation is represented in Fig. 41 by the straight line OA while equation (41) is represented by the curved line OBA . The intensity of magnetization being satisfied by equations (41) and (44), the points of intersection of the curve and the straight line give the values of I . One solution of these equations is

$$\begin{aligned} I &= 0 \\ a &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

from which it follows that

$$H = 0$$

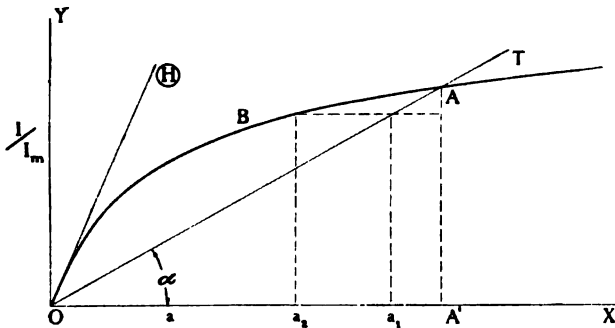


FIG. 41

It can be shown, however, that only the point A represents a state of stable equilibrium of magnetization. For suppose that we were able to decrease the intensity of magnetization I directly. For the same value of I and T , the value of a given by the straight line (namely a_1) is larger than a_2 given by the curve (See Fig. 41). a_1 is the value due to the molecular field which is much stronger than the external field whose action is represented by the curve and by a_2 . Now a decrease in the intensity of magnetization means that fewer elementary magnets have their magnetic axes pointing in the same direction. Referring to Fig. 20, it will be seen that if the molecular field or the field due to the action of one elementary magnet on another, is stronger than the external field H , equilibrium will be established only when the magnets have oriented themselves into a position such that the components of the moments of the two fields are the same, that is, when the intensity of magnetization has risen to the point A . On the other hand the point O represents a value at which the intensity of magnetization is zero, that is, where as many elementary magnets point in the direction of easy magnetization as in the opposite direction. A slight mechanical or magnetic disturbance will cause half of the elementary magnets to swing around into the direction of easy magnetization where they remain in stable equilibrium. Thus the point O corresponds to unstable magnetization and the point A to stable magnetization.

As the paramagnetic susceptibility is very small enormous magnetic fields would be required to increase this spontaneous magnetization

which is due to the external field. Assuming the mechanical analogy of Weiss in which the increase in the density of a liquid requires external pressures that are incomparably greater than those by means of which the density of gas is changed, we arrive at the conclusion that for the absolute temperature T , the ordinate $A'A$ represents the saturation value of the intensity of magnetization. According to this a ferromagnetic substance is saturated without the least external field. Though this inference, drawn from the theory, seems in contradiction to the larger number of experimental facts observed, yet it agrees perfectly with the phenomena of magnetization observed in crystals, and especially in those of normal pyrrhotite. This crystal has the very valuable property of a magnetic plane in which all the elementary magnets are situated. In this magnetic plane is a direction in which saturation takes place with very little or no external field, while a field of about 7,300 units is required to bring about saturation in a perpendicular direction. The assumption of a molecular field accounts very satisfactorily for the laws that govern the magnetization of the normal pyrrhotite as a function of the external field. The intensity of magnetization as a function of the temperature is a very complicated phenomenon, varying from one substance to another, and also varying in the same substance with the magnetic field; therefore it appears doubtful whether the most simple hypothesis of the uniform molecular magnetic field will be able to account for all the observed phenomena. In the case of magnetite, however, Weiss has shown that the theoretical curve coincides with the experimental curve between the temperatures -79° C. and $+587^{\circ}$ C. On the assumption that a piece of ordinary iron is composed of small crystals having the property of a magnetic plane, Weiss has also shown that the hysteresis loops of annealed iron can be given a theoretical interpretation.

In order to determine the absolute values of the internal magnetic field we have to examine the magnetic properties of the ferromagnetic substances in the neighborhood of the point where the spontaneous magnetization disappears. Thus iron loses its spontaneous magnetization at the temperature of 756° C. Between this point and 920° C. iron has still a considerable susceptibility, the magnetism, however, appearing only under the combined action of the external and internal fields. In this region we have

$$a = \frac{M(H_e + NI)}{RT} \dots \dots \dots (45)$$

or

$$T = \frac{M(H_e + NI)}{aR} \dots \dots \dots (46)$$

where M is the resulting magnetic moment of each molecule and H_e the external field. Equation (29), page 21, gives

$$\frac{I}{I_m} = \frac{\cosh a}{\sinh a} - \frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{3}a - \frac{2}{90}a^3 + \frac{4}{45.42}a^5 - \dots \dots \dots$$

As long as we consider only the beginning of the curve OB of Fig. 41 whose tangent at the origin corresponds to the temperature $\Theta = 756 +$

273 = 1029, we may consider only the first term on the right-hand side of the last equation. Then

$$I/I_m = a/3 \dots \dots \dots (47)$$

Up to the temperature Θ we have spontaneous ferromagnetism where the external field H_e is negligible in comparison with NI the internal magnetic field, so that in equation (45), we may write

$$a = \frac{MNI_m a}{3R\Theta}$$

whence

$$\Theta = \frac{MNI_m}{3R} \dots \dots \dots (48)$$

Dividing (46) by (48)

$$\frac{T}{\Theta} = \frac{3H_e}{aNI_m} + \frac{3I}{aI_m}$$

or from (47)

$$\frac{T}{\Theta} = \frac{3H_e}{aNI_m} + 1$$

Since

$$I_m = \frac{3}{a}I$$

this equation reduces to

$$\frac{T - \Theta}{\Theta} = \frac{H_e}{NI}$$

or

$$(T - \Theta)I = \frac{\Theta H_e}{N} \dots \dots \dots (49)$$

This equation represents an equilateral hyperbola and allows us to determine the coefficient N . Weiss found for

iron	$N = 3,850$	$H_m = 6,560,000$
nickel	$N = 12,700$	$H_m = 6,350,000$
magnetite	$N = 33,200$	$H_m = 14,300,000$

If the molecular magnets act upon one another with magnetic forces of this enormous amount, the potential energy due to the molecular magnetic field must have very large values.

29. *Specific Heat and Molecular Field of Ferromagnetic Substances.* — The mutual energy of a number of magnets of invariable magnetic moment M is

$$W = -\frac{1}{2} \sum MH \cos \alpha$$

H being the field in which is placed one of the elementary magnets and which is due to all the other magnets and α being the angle between H and M . When this summation is extended to all the elementary magnets contained in 1 cc. H becomes the molecular field H_m and the intensity of magnetization I is the geometric sum of the magnetic moments M . The energy of magnetization per unit of volume is then

$$W = -\frac{1}{2}IH_m.$$

The molecular field is related to the intensity of magnetization I by

$$H_m = NI$$

where N is a constant coefficient. Therefore

$$W = -\frac{1}{2} NI^2.$$

Since this energy is negative it is necessary to add energy in order to demagnetize. Thus the intensity of magnetization decreases continuously as the temperature increases from absolute zero to the temperature Θ of the disappearance of spontaneous ferromagnetism. The total quantity of heat absorbed by the magnetic phenomena per unit of mass of the body, between the temperature where the intensity of magnetization is I and the temperature Θ is

$$q_m = \frac{1}{2} \frac{NI^2}{JD}$$

where J is the mechanical equivalent of the calorie and D is the density.

The specific heat due to change in the intensity of magnetization is then

$$s_m = \frac{dq_m}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{N}{JD} \frac{\partial I^2}{\partial t}$$

which must be added to the ordinary specific heat. According to Curie's experimental results I , the intensity of magnetization for iron at ordinary temperatures, is equal to 1700 and

$$N = 3850.$$

Therefore

$$H_m = NI = 6,540,000.$$

The energy of diamagnetization per unit mass is

$$W = \frac{1}{2} NI^2 = 70.6 \times 10^7 \text{ ergs.}$$

At 20° C.

$$q_m = \frac{70.6 \times 10^7}{4.19 \times 10^7} = 16.8 \text{ calories.}$$

The following results for iron were obtained from Curie's experimental data.

$t^\circ\text{C.}$	$I/D \text{ C. G. S.}$	$q_m \text{ cal.}$	$s_m = \frac{\Delta q_m}{\Delta t}$	<i>In the Interval</i>
20	216.3	16.8		
275	207.5	15.5	.005	20° - 275°
477	189.6	12.9	.013	275° - 477°
601	164.0	9.7	.027	477° - 601°
688	127.	5.8	.045	601° - 688°
720	100.7	3.6	.068	688° - 720°
740	64.	1.5	.108	720° - 740°
744.6	50.1	.9	.136	740° - 744.6°
753	0. (by extrapolation)			

From this we see that at ordinary temperatures the specific heat is altered, due to the magnetic phenomena, by only a small amount, while in the neighborhood of Θ , the temperature at which spontaneous magnetization disappears, the effect amounts to 0.136, or about two fifths of the total value.

The results of Weiss and Beck * show a very interesting relation between the variations of the ordinary specific heat and

$$s_m = \frac{\Delta q_m}{\Delta t}$$

as functions of the temperature. Their results are represented graphically in Fig. 42, curve A representing the relation between ordinary specific heat and temperature and curve B that between s_m , the specific heat due to magnetization, and temperature. The same close agreement has been found in the ferromagnetic substances, nickel and magnetite.

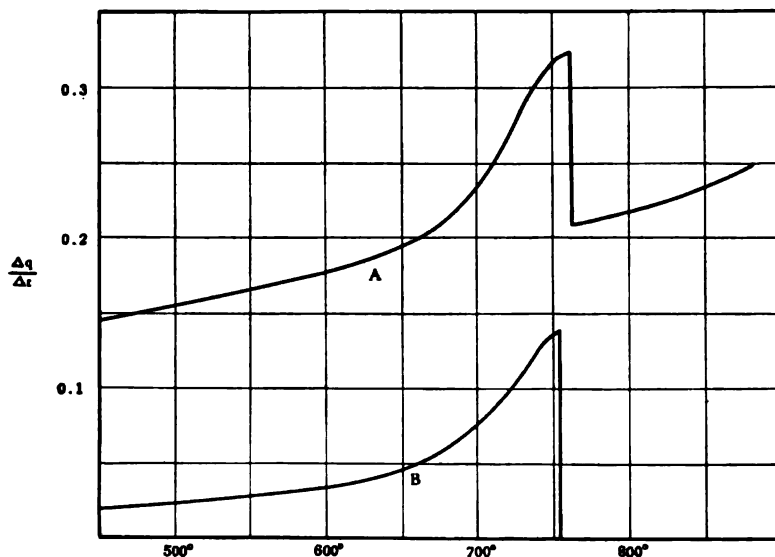


FIG. 42

30. *The Elementary Magnets of Iron, Nickel, and Magnetite.*— The electron theory of ferromagnetism gives us a means of determining the moment M of the molecular magnets of those substances whose internal magnetic field has been determined. Various methods may be applied for this purpose, but the one used by J. Kunz† is probably the most simple. In his method Kunz makes use of the equation

$$a = \frac{MNI}{RT} \dots \dots \dots (50)$$

where N is a constant. For the absolute temperature Θ , the temperature at which the spontaneous ferromagnetism disappears, we have the relation

$$I/I_m = a/3 \dots \dots \dots (51)$$

* Weiss and Beck, Jour. de Phys., ser. 4, Vol. 7, p. 249, 1908.

† J. Kunz, Phys. Rev., Vol. XXX, No. 3, March, 1910.

Substituting (51) in (50), we find

$$a = \frac{MNI_m a}{3RT}$$

or

$$M = \frac{3R\Theta}{NI_m} \dots \dots \dots (52)$$

where Θ is the particular temperature considered. R is given by the equation of gases

$$p = RN_1T$$

where

$$p = 10.1 \times 10^6$$

$$T = 273$$

$$N_1 = 2.7 \times 10^{19}$$

Therefore

$$R = 1.36 \times 10^{-16}.$$

I_m , the saturation value of the intensity of magnetization at the absolute zero of temperature, has to be determined from the above theory by means of the value I , the intensity of magnetization for the case of saturation at the temperature t° .

In the case of iron, we have from Curie's results, $I = 1700$ for ordinary temperatures and a field strength of 1300 units, and $I_m = 1950$. Taking $N = 3850$, the value found by Weiss and Beck,* and $\Theta = 756 + 273 = 1029$, we find, by substitution in equation (50) $M = 4.445 \times 10^{-20}$ absolute electromagnetic units.

Let N_1 be the number of molecular magnets in unit volume at the absolute zero. Then we have

$$N_1 M = I_m = 1950$$

or

$$N_1 = 4.386 \times 10^{22}.$$

If this number N_1 of elementary magnets is at the same time the number of molecules of iron, and if the mass of one molecule of iron is equal to μ , we have

$$N_1 \mu = \delta = 7.36$$

where δ is the density of iron at the absolute zero.

$$\mu = \delta / N_1 = 1.792 \times 10^{-22} \text{ grams}$$

Let us assume that the molecule of iron consists of two atoms, then it will be 111.8 times heavier than the atom of hydrogen, and the mass of the atom of hydrogen μ_H will be equal to

$$\mu_H = \frac{1.792 \times 10^{-22}}{111.8} = 1.603 \times 10^{-24} \text{ grams}$$

Du Bois and Taylor Jones† found the intensity of magnetization of iron continues to increase up to field strengths of 1500 units. At this value they found the value of I for ordinary temperatures to be 1850. Substituting this value instead of 1700, the value obtained by Curie, we have

$$\mu_H = 1.66 \times 10^{-24} \text{ grams}$$

* Weiss and Beck, Jour. de Phys., Vol. 7, pp. 249, 1908.

† Du Bois and Taylor Jones, Elektrot. Zeitschr., Vol. 17, p. 544, 1896.

A recent value of this quantity has been determined by Rutherford by means of radioactive phenomena. He found

$$\mu_H = 1.61 \times 10^{-24} \text{ grams}$$

The close check of the values for the mass of one atom of hydrogen deduced from so very different phenomena as those of radioactivity and ferromagnetism by considerations entirely different, is strong evidence in favor of the theories involved. It follows from the above that the molecular magnet of iron contains two atoms.

In the case of magnetite, Fe_3O_4 , we find the following numbers:

$$\begin{aligned} N &= 33,200 \\ I &= 430 \\ I_m &= 490 \\ \delta &= 5.2 \end{aligned}$$

According to Curie

$$\Theta = 536 + 273 = 809.$$

Using these values we find

$$M = 2.02 \times 10^{-20}.$$

Now

$$N_1 M = I_m = 490$$

therefore

$$N_1 = 2.42 \times 10^{22}$$

If the mass of each molecule is equal to μ we have

$$N_1 \mu = 5.2$$

whence

$$\mu = 2.15 \times 10^{-23}.$$

Now

$$\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 = 231.7$$

therefore

$$\mu_H = \frac{2.15 \times 10^{-23}}{231.7} = 0.93 \times 10^{-24} \text{ grams,}$$

a value that agrees pretty well with that obtained from other sources when we take into consideration the comparatively small amount of work that has been done on magnetite.

According to Weiss

$$\Theta = 589 + 273 = 862,$$

instead of 809 as given above. Substituting this value for Θ we find

$$\mu_H = 0.99 \times 10^{-24} \text{ grams.}$$

In the case of nickel we have the following values:

$$\begin{aligned} N &= 12,700 \\ I &= 500 \\ I_m &= 570 \\ \Theta &= 376 + 273 = 649 \\ M &= 3.65 \times 10^{-20} \\ N_1 &= 1.56 \times 10^{22} \\ N_1 \mu &= \delta = 8.8 \\ \mu &= 5.63 \times 10^{-23} \end{aligned}$$

The atomic weight of nickel is 5.87, hence, assuming that each molecular magnet contains two atoms, we find

$$\mu_H = \frac{5.63 \times 10^{-22}}{117.4} = 4.8 \times 10^{-24},$$

a value that is just three times larger than that given by Rutherford. As the degree of accuracy is the same in the case of iron, nickel, and magnetite, the experimental evidence indicates that the molecular magnet of nickel is made up of six atoms, or that the number of degrees of freedom is only one third as great as in the case of iron. In a recent investigation, Stifler* has determined the above quantities for cobalt. He obtained the following values:

$$\begin{aligned} N &= 6,180 \\ I &= 1,310 \\ I_m &= 1,435 \\ \Theta &= 1,348 \\ M &= 6.21 \times 10^{-20} \\ N_1 &= 2.31 \times 10^{22} \\ N_1 \mu &= \delta = 8.77 \\ \mu &= 3.8 \times 10^{-22} \end{aligned}$$

Since the atomic weight of cobalt is 59, we obtain, on the assumption that each molecular magnet contains two atoms,

$$\mu_H = \frac{3.8 \times 10^{-22}}{118} = 3.22 \times 10^{-24}$$

a value that is just two times larger than Rutherford's value. If we apply the above reasoning we must conclude that the elementary magnet of cobalt is made up of four atoms.

The quantities considered above are given in the following table: n is the number of atoms corresponding to one elementary magnet.

Substance	$I_t = 20^\circ$	I_m	$\Theta^\circ \text{C.}$	N	$NI = H_m$	$M \times 10^{20}$	$\mu_H \times 10^4$	n
Fe	1,700	1,950	756	3,850	6,540,000	4.445	1.603	2
Fe_3O_4	430	490	536	33,200	14,300,000	2.02	0.93	
Ni	500	570	376	12,700	6,350,000	3.65	4.8	6
Co	1,421	1,435	1,075	6,180	8,870,000	6.21	3.22	4

As the ratio of the density of nickel and iron, 1.12, is nearly equal to the ratio of the atomic weights, 1.05, of the two metals, the number of molecules per unit volume must be the same for both metals, assuming that each molecule contains two atoms. Since the moment of the molecular magnets of nickel is only about 18 per cent smaller than that of iron, we should expect that the intensity of magnetization of nickel would vary by about this amount from that of iron, while in reality the magnetization of iron is 3.4 times greater than that of nickel. This consideration indicates again, that either the molecular magnet of nickel contains six atoms or that only every third molecule is an elementary magnet.

* W. W. Stifler, Phys. Rev., Vol. XXXIII, No. 4, p. 268, 1911.

This fundamental difference in the molecular magnets of iron and nickel must be taken into account when explaining some of the very interesting differences in the magnetic behavior of the two metals. Thus, the first layer of electrolytically deposited nickel is stronger magnetically than the subsequent layers, while for iron the opposite is true, that is, thin layers of iron are much less magnetic than thicker layers. In addition, a longitudinal compression decreases the magnetization of iron and increases that of nickel. In a recent article the author has shown * that the effect of transverse joints in nickel bars is to increase the magnetic induction rather than decrease it as in the case of iron.

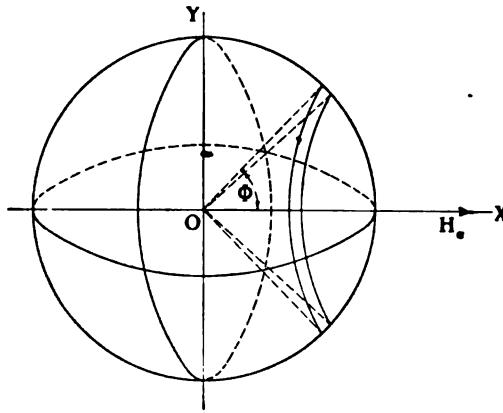


FIG. 43

31. *The Hysteresis Loop of Iron.*— Let us assume that the elementary crystal of iron has properties analogous to those of the crystal of pyrrhotite and that the direction of easy magnetization is distributed uniformly throughout the volume. Working with weak fields let us first consider only the irreversible phenomena. When the substance is in the neutral state, the magnetization vectors of the different elementary crystals will terminate on the surface of a sphere with uniform density. If the field H acting in the direction Ox , Fig. 43, exceeds the coercive field H_e , all the elementary magnets which were originally directed in the negative direction will swing round so that all the intensity of magnetization vectors will be contained in a cone having OH for its axis and of semiangle ϕ which is given by

$$\cos \phi = H_e/H.$$

Each of the elementary magnets that swings around will contribute its moment M_1 to the resulting intensity of magnetization in the direction x . Now the number of vectors ending on the sphere is equal to N , the number of elementary crystals with a plane of magnetization,

* E. H. Williams, Phys. Rev., Vol. XXXIII, No. 1, p. 59, 1911.

and the number ending on the zone subtended by the angle ϕ before the field is applied will be

$$\frac{2\pi r \sin \phi d\phi}{4\pi r} N = N/2 \sin \phi d\phi$$

The moment, due to these magnets, in the direction Ox is

$$M_x = M_1 \cos \phi \frac{N}{2} \sin \phi d\phi.$$

The moment due to all the magnets that swing round into the direction Ox is

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \int_0^\phi \frac{M_1 N}{2} \sin \phi \cos \phi d\phi. \\ &= \frac{M_1 N}{4} \sin^2 \phi \\ &= \frac{I_m}{4} \sin^2 \phi \end{aligned}$$

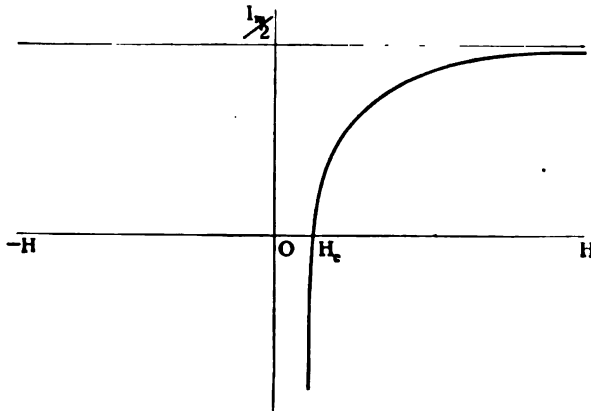


FIG. 44

since the number originally in the positive direction is equal to the number that have been turned around, the resulting moment in the direction Ox will be

$$\begin{aligned} M &= 2 \frac{I_m}{4} \sin^2 \phi \\ &= \frac{I_m}{2} \sin^2 \phi \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\cos \phi = H_c/H$$

therefore

$$M = \frac{I_m}{2} [1 - (H_c/H)^2] \dots \dots \dots (53)$$

where M is the resultant magnetic moment per unit volume, that is, the intensity of magnetization I .

The graphic representation of the equation

$$I = I_m/2 \left[1 - (H_c/H)^2 \right] \dots \dots \dots (54)$$

is given by Fig. 44. This resembles an hyperbola whose horizontal asymptote is given by $I = \frac{I_m}{2}$ and whose vertical asymptote is given by $H = 0$. If H is equal to H_c the intensity of magnetization $I = 0$ and if $H = \infty$, $I = I_m/2$. But physically this must be the value of saturation I_m therefore we shall write

$$I = I_m \left[1 - (H_c/H)^2 \right] \dots \dots \dots (55)$$

If we were to draw the curve corresponding to this equation, we should find a curve of exactly the same character as the previous one except that for a given value of H the ordinate I would be twice as large as before.

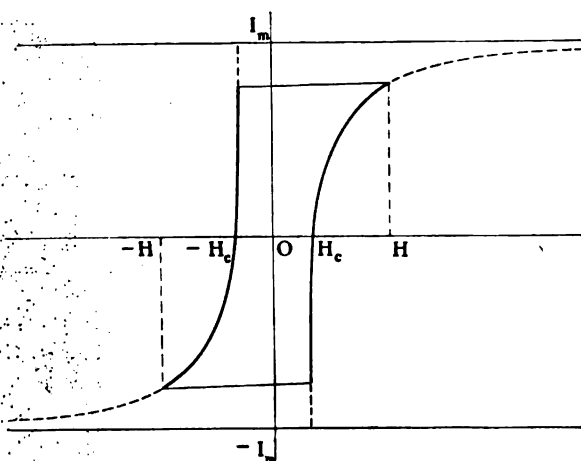


FIG. 45

If one causes the field to oscillate between the value $+H$ and $-H$, the graphical representation of the curve of equation (55) will be given by Fig. 45. When the field $-H$ is applied, the figurative points will be collected on the negative side of the sphere of Fig. 43. With the sample in this condition let us begin the description of a cycle, varying the field from $-H$ to increasing positive values. The intensity of magnetization will change very little so long as the field is less than $+H_c$. At this point it begins to change very rapidly and will describe a curve similar to the curves considered above. This curve with the portion of the straight line already described will constitute half of a cycle corresponding to a variation of the field from $-H$ to $+H$. The cycle is completed, from symmetry, by returning to the origin.

Equation (55) assumes that the coefficients N_1 and N_2 of Fig. 39 are zero. Now, in the case of iron, this is only approximately true. Making these corrections, the theoretical considerations give cycles which are shown in Fig. 46. The scale has been chosen so as to reproduce as nearly as possible the experimental curves of Fig. 47, which are taken from the results of Ewing.* The similarity of the ascending and descending curves, more particularly the outer ones, is very marked.

The principal differences to be noted between the experimental and theoretical curves are, first, that the upper limits of the cycles for medium fields fall more nearly on the outer cycle in the experimental than in the theoretical curves, and second, that for fields but slightly greater than H_c the theoretical curves are rectangular in shape while the experimental curves are not.

32. Exceptions to the Electron Theory. — While the electron theory is capable of explaining many of the phenomena of magnetism, yet in its present form and present stage of development it is unable to account for a large number of cases.

Curie's rules, which are the basis of the present theory, hold rigidly for very few substances. Thus, according to these rules the diamagnetic susceptibility is independent of the temperature. However, there are substances whose diamagnetic susceptibility increases with increase of temperature, while in other substances the opposite is the case. Another of Curie's rules states that, for paramagnetic substances, the susceptibility is inversely proportional to the absolute temperature. While this holds for a very large number of substances, there are cases where the rule fails to represent the facts as determined by experiment. Recently H. Kamerling Onnes and A. Perrier† have shown that for several substances the law does not hold for very low temperatures. Some substances at temperatures below those at which Curie's c/T law is obeyed follow

more nearly a $\frac{c}{\sqrt{T}}$ law. None of the salts investigated by the above authors show signs of saturation phenomenon. Pyrrhotite, whose magnetic properties conform to the electron theory very closely up to θ , the temperature of transformation, is very abnormal above this temperature.

From his experimental results upon a limited number of substances, Curie comes to the conclusion that the paramagnetic susceptibility is independent of the state of aggregation or chemical combination of elements. Now oxygen and boron are paramagnetic, oxygen strongly so, yet the oxide of boron is diamagnetic. Likewise Al_2O_3 , MgO , MnO , ThO , U_2O_3 and other oxides are diamagnetic.

The law of approach of the intensity of magnetization to the constant value of saturation holds only for cobalt and not for iron and nickel.

* Ewing, *Magnetic Induction*, 3rd. Ed., p. 106, Fig. 50.

† H. Kamerling Onnes and A. Perrier, *Konink. Akad. Wetensch., Amsterdam Proc.* 14, p. 115, 1911.

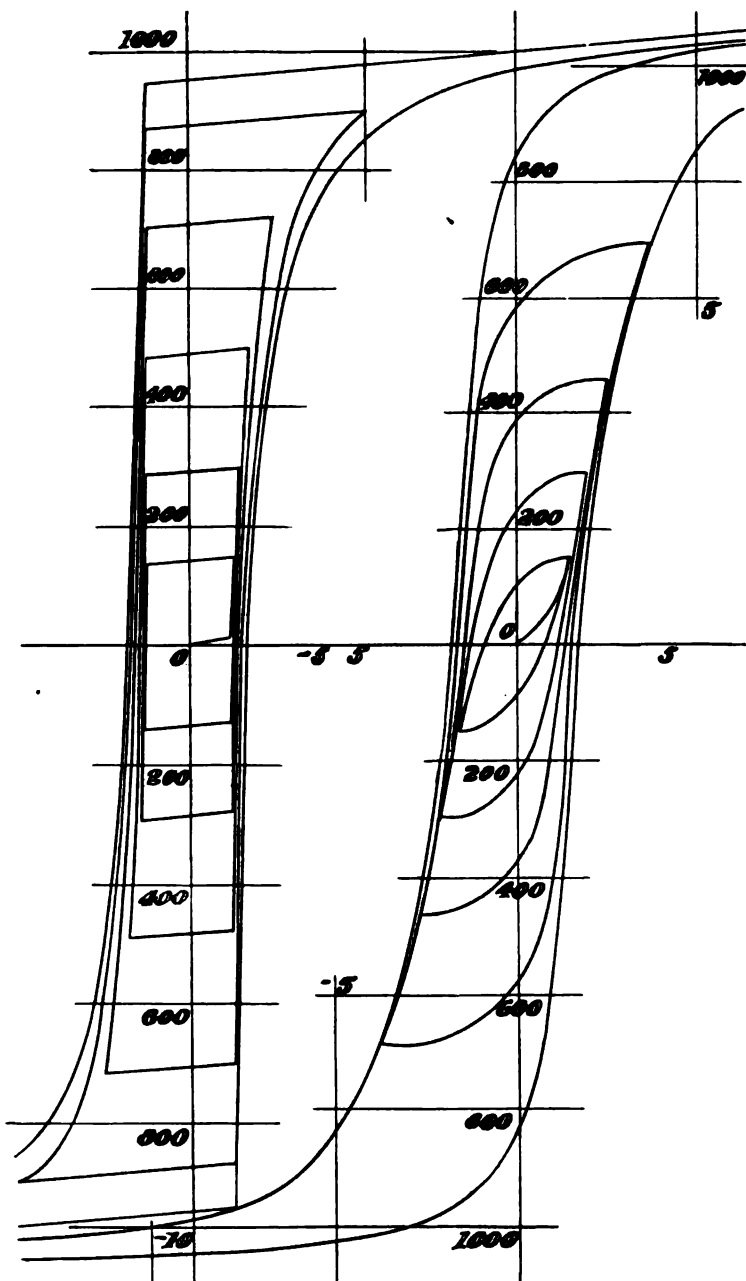


FIG. 46

FIG. 47

The large number of exceptions to the electron theory in its present form requires either that it be abandoned or that the theory be modified to fit more exactly experimental results. The fact that it agrees in such a large number of cases with experiment and that, by its application, the fundamental quantities of nature can be obtained in such close agreement with observation, gives hope that ultimately the present theory will be modified so that it will hold universally.

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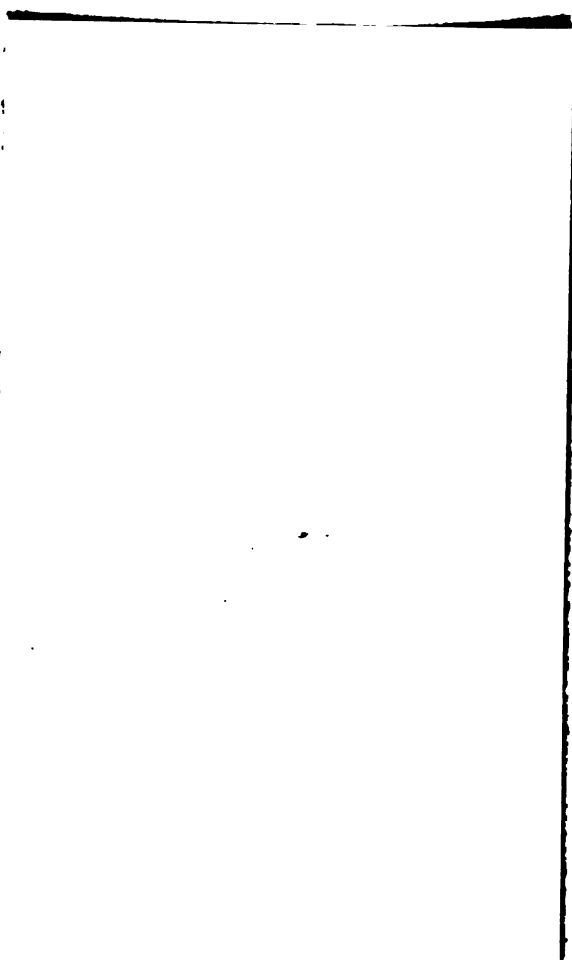
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